This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

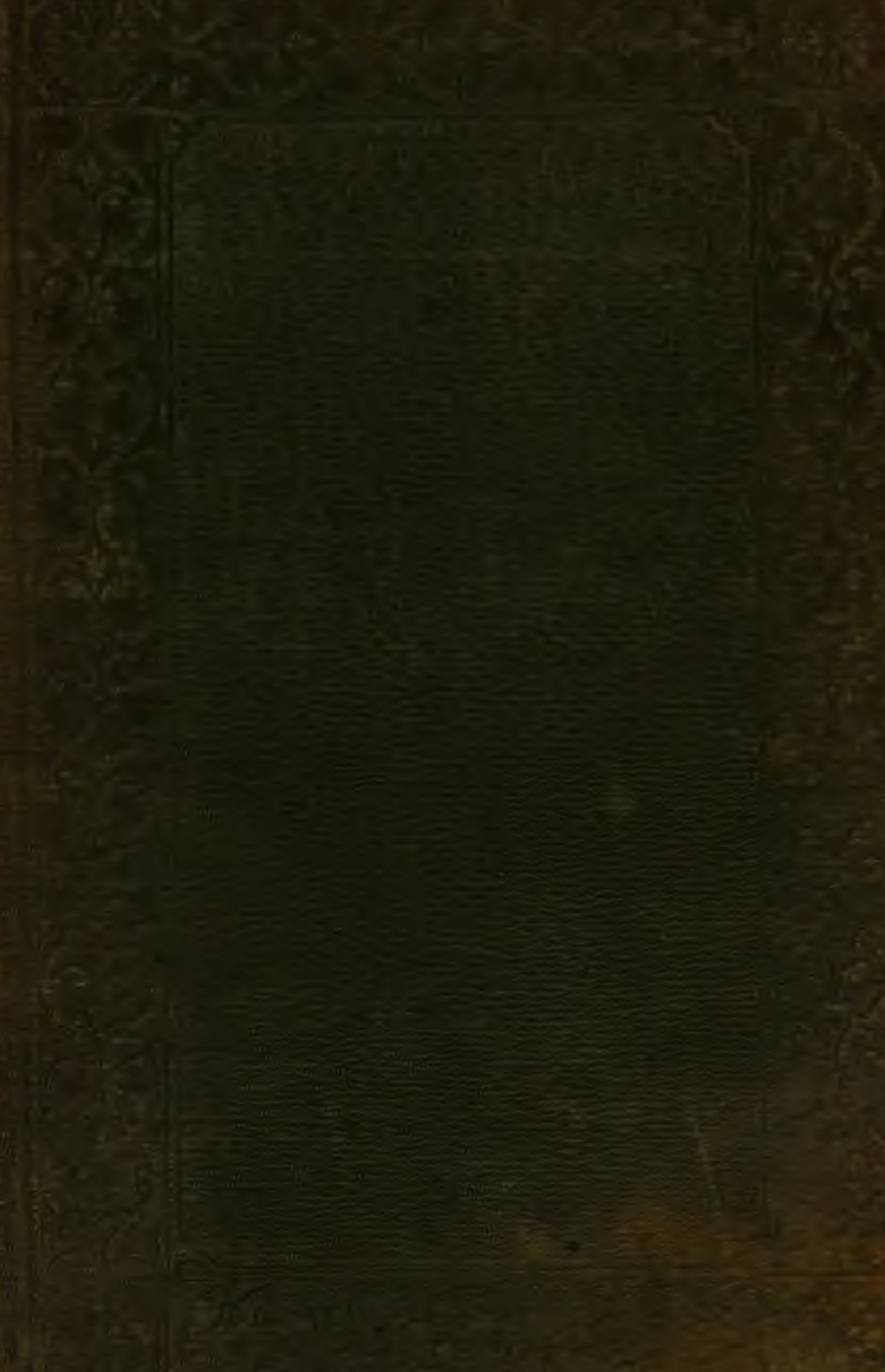
+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`



LIBRARY
OF THE
UNIVERSITY
OF
CALIFORNIA

The

No. 27

THE LIBRARY
OF
THE UNIVERSITY
OF CALIFORNIA

I. Növried. 1855

[illegible] S. J.

Thos. M Forbes

DE BOW'S REVIEW

AND

Industrial Resources, Statistics, etc.

DEVOTED TO

COMMERCE, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS, POLITICAL ECONOMY, GENERAL LITERATURE, ETC.

"Commerce is King."

EDITED BY

J. D. B. DE BOW,

PROFESSOR OF POLITICAL ECONOMY, ETC., IN THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA,
SUPERINTENDANT U. S. CENSUS.

Vol. XVI.—NEW SERIES, Vol. II.

NEW-ORLEANS
AND
WASHINGTON CITY.
1854.

[illegible]

HF1
~~D2~~

~~F3 F8 T8~~3
~~252338~~
~~Bancroft Library~~
Withdrawn
11-7-52

HF1
.D2
v.16

INDEX TO VOL. XVI.

ART. I.—GROWTH, TRADE AND MANUFACTURE OF COTTON..... 1
By J. G. Dudley, New-York.
ART. II.—THE CONSULAR SYSTEM..... 12
By J. G. Moore, Philadelphia.
ART. III.—THE TURKS AND THE HOLY LAND..... 22
ART. IV.—HAYTI AND THE HAYTIENS..... 32
ART. V.—CLARK MILLS AND HIS EQUESTRIAN STATUE..... 38
ART. VI.—SOUTHERN SLAVERY AND ITS ASSAILANTS..... 46
By a Lady of Georgia.
ART. VII.—ITALIAN LETTERS..... 62
ART. VIII.—IMPROVEMENT OF RIVERS..... 66
By Albert Stein, of Mobile.
ART. IX.—FREE BANKING IN THE SOUTHWEST..... 78
ART. X.—THE UNITED STATES CENSUS FOR 1850..... 81
ART. XI.—AGRICULTURE..... 97
ART. XII.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS..... 101
ART. XIII.—EDITORIAL..... 103
ART. XIV.—TURKEY—ITS COMMERCE AND ITS DESTINY..... 109
ART. XV.—INDIAN SUPERSTITIONS..... 128
ART. XVI.—THE INDIANS OF THE UNITED STATES—THEIR PAST, THEIR PRESENT, AND THEIR FUTURE..... 143
ART. XVII.—THE FIRST SETTLEMENT OF KENTUCKY..... 150
ART. XVIII.—EARLY LIFE IN THE SOUTHWEST..... 155
ART. XIX.—THE TELEGRAPH..... 159
ART. XX.—ON THE CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY, as Exhibited by the President's Message and Accompanying Documents..... 170
ART. XXI.—THE MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES..... 181
ART. XXII.—COMMERCIAL AND FINANCIAL..... 192
ART. XXIII.—AGRICULTURE..... 199
ART. XXIV.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS..... 205
ART. XXV.—EDITORIAL, LITERARY, ETC..... 212
ART. XXVI.—MOBILE RIVER AND BAY..... 225
By A. Stein.
ART. XXVII.—THE REGIONS OF THE AMAZON..... 231
ART. XXVIII.—THE TELEGRAPH..... 251
ART. XXIX.—MODERN PHILANTHROPY AND NEGRO SLAVERY..... 263
ART. XXX.—THE RUSSO-TURKISH QUESTION..... 277
ART. XXXI.—RISE AND PROGRESS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION—No. 1..... 300
ART. XXXII.—INSOLVENCY AMONGST MERCHANTS..... 311
By Logan McKnight, of N. O.
ART. XXXIII.—STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES..... 320
ART. XXXIV.—NEWSPAPERS AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES..... 324
ART. XXXV.—THE COMMERCE OF THE OHIO, AND ITS OBSTRUCTIONS..... 327
ART. XXXVI.—EDITORIAL, BOOK NOTICES, ETC..... 331
ART. XXXVII.—COTTON TRADE OF THE WORLD—1853..... 337
By Professor McKay.
ART. XXXVIII.—MINNESOTA AND ITS RESOURCES..... 343
ART. XXXIX.—NATURAL HISTORY IN ITS RELATIONS TO GEORGIA..... 354
By J. Darby, of Georgia.
ART. XL.—MORMONISM IN THE UNITED STATES..... 368
By F. C. Barber, of Tennessee.
ART. XLI.—LOUIS NAPOLEON AND THE FRENCH..... 382
By J. Q. Moore, of Louisiana.
ART. XLII.—GREAT CITIES OF THE WEST—ST. LOUIS. No. I..... 397
ART. XLIII.—THE CORN TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES..... 411

M779445

ART. XLIV.—THE COMMERCE OF THE OHIO, AND ITS OBSTRUCTIONS (Continued.)........ 416
ART. XLV.—STATISTICS OF COMMERCE, POPULATION, ETC...... 421
ART. XLVI.—PROMOTION OF AGRICULTURE BY THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT........ 427
By Hon. E. Newton, of Ohio.
ART. XLVII.—RAILROAD INTELLIGENCE........ 439
ART. XLVIII.—THE PRODUCTION OF COTTON........ 442
ART. XLIX.—BOOK NOTICES........ 443
NOTE TO SUBSCRIBERS........ 444
ART. L.—THE DECIMAL SYSTEM OF MEASURES........ 445
ART. LI.—MANUFACTURING IN SOUTH CAROLINA........ 452
ART. LII.—GUANO—ITS HISTORY AND ITS USES........ 459
ART. LIII.—YELLOW FEVER IN NEW-ORLEANS........ 463
ART. LIV.—WOOL AND THE WOOLLEN TRADE........ 466
ART. LV.—TEXAS AND HER PROSPECTS........ 473
ART. LVI.—THE TOBACCO TRADE FOR 1853........ 477
By Charles De Ford, of Baltimore.
ART. LVII.—COTTON........ 483
ART. LVIII.—GREAT CITIES OF THE WEST—BUFFALO. No. II... 490
By J. J. Henderson.
ART. LIX.—VITAL STATISTICS—THE CARLISLE TABLE........ 503
ART. LX.—THE PACIFIC RAILROAD........ 506
ART. LXI.—THE MARITIME CONFERENCE OF NATIONS AT BRUSSELS........ 519
ART. LXII.—THE COMMERCE OF PORTO RICO........ 522
ART. LXIII.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT BY GOVERNMENT—SLAVERY........ 524
ART. LXIV.—MARINE DISASTERS IN 1853........ 528
ART. LXV.—THE AMERICAN FISHERIES........ 531
ART. LXVI.—RICE—ITS USES AND PRODUCTION........ 535
By Dr. J. B. Wilkinson, of Louisiana.
ART. LXVII.—THE HOG BUSINESS OF THE WEST........ 539
ART. LXVIII.—RUSSIAN COMMERCE........ 540
ART. LXIX.—THE SOUTHERN ROUTE TO THE PACIFIC........ 545
ART. LXX.—RAILROAD LEGISLATION OF MISSISSIPPI........ 549
ART. LXXI.—MISCELLANEOUS........ 551
ART. LXXII.—MEDICAL STATISTICS OF THE CENSUS OF 1850.... 552
ART. LXXIII.—THE UNITED STATES MAIL........ 553
By D. D. Leech, of Washington, D. C.
ART. LXXIV.—STATISTICAL CONGRESS OF NATIONS AT BRUSSELS........ 570
ART. LXXV.—EDUCATION AND CRIME AT THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH........ 578
By J. T. Trezevant, of Tennessee.
ART. LXXVI.—EMANCIPATION IN JAMAICA—ITS WORKINGS 581
ART. LXXVII.—SEA-COAST CROPS OF THE SOUTH........ 589
By R. F. W. Allston, of South Carolina.
ART. LXXVIII.—GREAT CITIES OF THE WEST—CINCINNATI. No. III. 615
ART. LXXIX.—SUBMARINE TELEGRAPH ACROSS THE ATLANTIC........ 626
Letter by Lieut. Maury.
ART. LXXX.—SYSTEM OF COTTON MANUFACTURES IN THE U. S........ 629
ART. LXXXI.—THE GREAT SOUTHERN CONVENTION IN CHARLESTON........ 632
ART. LXXXII.—THE BATTLE OF NEW-ORLEANS........ 641
ART. LXXXIII.—INTERESTING RAILROAD STATISTICS........ 647
ART. LXXXIV.—RAILROADS........ 649
ART. LXXXV.—COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES........ 652
ART. LXXXVI.—EDITORIAL, BOOK NOTICES, ETC........ 653

ALPHABETICAL INDEX.

PAGE.
Allen, Zachariah—first India cloths printed for, ... 2
Ambassadors—privileges of, . . . 15
Abolitionism—Presbyterian and Methodist, 51
Appomattox—obstructions in river, . 73
" —tidal observations of the river, ... 75
Agriculture— 97
Asiatic trade routes—notice of the, . 127
Annuities—Indian cash, . . 145
Agriculture—article on, . . . 199
Algeria—cotton cultivation in, . . 200
Amazon—the regions of the, . . 231
" —scenery of the river, . . 241
American—population of the race, . . 257
African—population of the race, . . 257
Austria—perilous position of, . . 285
" —the Danube and, . . 289
Adrianople—last bulwark of Turkey, . 299
Agriculture—true interest of U. S., . 307
Agriculture—ratio of States engaged in, . 321
Army—the European States, . . . 423
Agriculture—promotion by Fed. Gov. of, . 427
" —Washington's views of, . 429
" —meagreness of Gov. patronage to, ... 435
" —promotion of, by Government, 436
" —estimated value of production of U. S., ... 525
Agriculturist—influence of the educated, . 591
Atlantic Ocean—Submarine Telegraph across the, ... 627

Block-printing—introduction of, . . 2
Byzantum—various revolutions of, . 31
Banking—Southwestern free, . . 78
Black Sea—Turkish ports on the, . . 125
Boone, Daniel—sketch of, . . 150
Boonesborough—settlement of, . . 153
Brown, Henry S.—pioneer of Texas, . 155
" —death of, . . 159
Banks—operations of the New-York, . 192
Beef—exports from New-York of, . 198
Books—notices of Southern, . . 215
Brazil—the diamond regions of, . 249
Bonaparte, Napoleon—Emperor of Russia and, ... 279
Books—notices of, . . . 334
Bible—narrative of the Mormon, . . 379
Bloody Reign—commencement of the, . 387
Bureau—an agricultural, . . . 427
Book notices—&c., &c., ... 444
Buffalo—population, resources, &c., of, . 490
" —lake imports for 1853 of, . . 493
" —produce by railroads to, . 495
" —lake, marine, and ship building of, 497
" —trade with Canada of, . . 499
" —imports and exports by canal of, . 501
" —property left at, . . . 502
Brussels—conference of nations at, . 519

PAGE.
Brooks, Hon. P. S.—extracts from speech of, ... 526
Brussels—statistical congress of nations at, 570
Book Notices, &c., ... 653

Canal—James River and Kanawha, . 441
Cotton—the production of, . . . 442
" —growth and trade of, . . 483
" —chronological summary of, . 489
Canada—trade of Buffalo with, . . 499
Carlisle Table—vital statistics, &c., . 503
Commerce—Porto-Rico, . . . 522
" —Russian, . . . 540
Cotton—spinning factories at St. Petersburg of, ... 543
Colleges—resolutions concerning northern, 551
Census—Medical statistics of 1850, . 552
Constantinople—dirt and dogs of, . . 29
Calhoun, John C.—Clark Mills' bust of, . 41
Credit—basis of commercial, . . 79
Census—the U. S. for 1850, . . 81
Canal—Saut Ste. Marie, . . . 102
Commerce—Turkish, . . . 109
Chart—Hansteen's magnetic, . . 161
Commerce—importance of the telegraph to, 169
Country—message of the President on condition of the, ... 170
Commercial—financial and, . . 192
California—arrivals of gold from, . . 193
Corn—exports of, ... 198
Caterpiller—to prevent ravages of the, . 201
Caucasian—population of the race, . 257
China—introduction of telegraph into, . 261
Commerce—rapid strides of U. S. navigation and, ... 300
Creditor—duty to insolvent debtor of, . 319
Commerce—obstructions to the Ohio, . 327
Convention—Southern agricultural, . 331
Columbia—agricultural Convention at, . 331
Cotton—increasing home demand for, . 339
" —supply for 1854 of, . . 341
" —prospects of trade in, . . 343
Conservatism—Louis Napoleon the embodiment of, ... 391
Cities—population of 32, . . . 397
" —population of 56, . . . 398
Corn-trade—Great Britain and U. S., . 411
Commerce—value of Western, . . 417
" —statistics of population and, . 421
Canada—increase of population of, . 421
Cotton—growth, trade and manufacture of, 1
" —names of distinguished manufacturers in U. S. of, . . 3
" —statistics of the manufacture in U. S. of raw, ... 9
" —amount of capital invested in the manufacture in U. S. of raw, . 11
" —competition of India in, . . 97
" —the crops of India and of America of, . . . 97

PAGE.
Calico-printing—when introduced into U. S., 2
" —greatest machine in the world for, 2
Cylinder machine—to print calicoes, the first introduced, 2
Cotton—Southern crop of, 99
" —additional value of, 204
" —world's consumption of, 337
Capital invested in cotton manufacturing in U. S., amount of, 11
Cotton—cultivation in Algeria of, 200
Cotton-seed—value of oil from, 203
Copper—Cylinders of, imported from England in 1825, 2
Consuls—ancient and modern duties of, 13
" —acts of Congress concerning, 16
Consular System—the, 12
" —commercial advantages of, 21
Calicoes—Comparative increase of production in U. S. of, 3
Cotton goods—amount exported from U. S. of, 10
Cotton—extension of its culture, 592
" —progress of the growth of, 593
" —Sea Island, remarks on, 595
Cincinnati—railroads connecting with, 617
" —imports and exports of, 621
" —steamboat building at, 622
" —value of imports in '52 and '53, 623
" —steamboat departures from, '51–53, 626
Cotton Manufactures—system of, in U. S., 629
Charleston—Great Southern Convention in, 632
" —list of delegates to, 633
" —proceedings of do., 635

Danube—Russian influence in the, 127
Diamond—Brazilian mines of, 249
Dix, Miss—statement of, in relation to the insane, 263
Danube—Austria and the, 289
Debts—sacredness of security, 315
Disasters—1853, marine, 422
Debt—the European States, 423
Disasters—1853, British Marine, 528
Denmark—official statistics in, 573

Equestrian Statue—Clark Mills and his, 38
Editorial—book notices, &c., 103
East India Company—sordid character of the, 142
Exports—imports of U. S. and, 195
Entomologists—State, 203
Editorial—literary and, 212
Embargo—effects of the, 305
Education—statistics of, 321
Editorial, &c.—book notices, 331
Exports—flour and wheat, 415
European States—debt, army, population of, 423
East Indies—imports of wool from the, 473
Europe—extent of statistical investigation in, 571

Free-Banking—what is, 80
Fairs—agricultural, 97
Financial—commercial and, 192
Flour—exports of, 196
Free Trade—early tendency of U. S. to, 303
French—Louis Napoleon and the, 382
Flour—prices in N. Y. of, 413
" —export of wheat and, 415
Freights—ship building and, 426
France—metrical system of, 447
" —money standard of, 451
Fisheries—the American, 531
" —Newfoundland seal, 533
" —numbers employed in the cod and mackerel, 534

PAGE.
France—official statistics of, 575

Gold—arrivals at New-York of California, 193
Georgia—natural history in its relations to, 354
" —natural resources of, 357
Gila—gold, silver, and copper mines of the, 425
Guano—history and uses of, 459
" —fertilizing effects of, 461
" —method of using, 463

Holy Land—the Turks and the, 22
" —snob travellers to the, 27
Hayti—the Haytiens and, 32
" —mountains, lakes, and produce of, 33
" —cruelty of the revolutionary insurgents of, 35
" —military and judicial economy of, 37
" —imports and exports of, 38
Hindoos—religious rites of the, 135
" —mendicants among the, 137
" —idolatrous festivals of the, 141
Howard Association—expenditures of, 213
Herndon, Lieut.—Survey of Amazon by, 231
Hogs—packed, amount of, 409
" —production of, 539

Italy—old cathedrals of, 63
" —paintings of ancient masters of, 65
India—cotton crops of America and, 97
Internal Improvements—railroads and, 101
Indians—superstitions of the, 128
" —past, present, and future of U. S., 143
" —intemperance of the, 145
" —probable fate of the, 147
" —statistics of population of the, 149
Interior—report of Secretary of the, 184
Imports—exports of the U. S. and, 195
Internal Improvements—railroads and, 205
Insane—treatment of the, 264
Insolvency—mercantile, 311
Internal Improvement—government, 524
Immigration—report of 1853 on, 552

Jerusalem—the varied futures of, 23
Jews—idolatry of the, 25
Jackson, Andrew—statue of, 43
Jews—slavery amongst the ancient, 59
Jamaica—emancipation at, 581
" —short supply of labor at, 583
" —properties abandoned in, since 1832, 586
" —properties partially abandoned, 587
" —present properties in, 588

Kentucky—first settlement of, 150
Keitt, Hon. L. M.—extracts from speech of, 524

Letters—Italian, 62
" —McCord to Abbot Lawrence, 104
Lawrence, Abbot—McCord's letter to, 104
Lightning—the course of, 163
Land Office—report of Com. Gen'l of the, 177
Land—railroads advancing the price of, 179
Lowell—the manufacturing companies of, 188
" —wages of factory hands in, 191
Languages—assimilation of all, 259
Libraries—newspaper, and public, 324
Louis XVIII.—reign of, 389
Lead Trade—upper Mississippi, 407
Lard—quantities received and produced of, 409

Manufacturers—names of distinguished cotton, 3
Mahometans—idolatry of the, 25
Mills, Clark—equestrian statue by, 38
" —genius and industry of, 39
McCord, D. J.—letter to Abbot Lawrence from, 104
Mahometanism—religion of, 131
Mythology—Bryant's analysis of ancient, 133
Morse, Saml. F. B.—compliment to, 164

PAGE.
Morse, Saml. F. B.—advantages of the telegraph of, . 165
Mobile—bay and river of, . 225
Mines—South America silver, . 232
Madeira—largest tributary of the Amazon is, . 247
Man—different races of, . 257
Mongolian—population of the race, . 257
Malayan—population of the race, . 257
Mahometans—characteristics of the, . 281
Merchants—insolvency amongst, . 311
Minnesota—resources of, . 343
" —early exploration of, . 345
Mechanics—demand in Minnesota for, . 349
Minnesota—education in, agricultural products of, . 353
Mormonism—progress of, . 368
" —compared with Mahometanism, its progress, . 375
Mormon—record of the book of, . 381
Mississippi—lead trade of the Upper, . 407
Marine—1853, disasters, . 422
Mexico, New—copper mines of, . 425
Measures—decimal system of, . 445
Money—standard of French, . 451
Manufactures—South Carolina, . 452
" —superiority of the South for, 453
Marine—1853, British disasters, . 528
Manufactures—Russian cotton, . 543
Mississippi—railroad legislation of, . 549
Mail—United States, . 554
" —exhibit of its progress, . 557
" —important epoch in its history, . 559
" —railroad contracts, &c., . 560
" —annual revenue prior to 1825, . 565
Maize—its culture at the South, . 600

Navy—report of Secretary of the, . 182
New-York—imports and exports of, . 194
New-Orleans—value of property, taxation, &c., of, . 213
Navigation—commerce of the U. S. and, . 300
Newspapers—public libraries and, . 324
Napoleon, Louis—the French and, . 382
Napoleon the Great—comparison between the nephew and, . 395
New-Orleans—yellow fever in, . 463
Northampton Table—erroneous data of the, 503
" " —original data of the, . 505
North and South—education and crime at the, . 578
Negro—humane management of, . 615
New-Orleans—battle of, extract from officer's journal, . 641

Oregon—account of introduction of the pea of, . 201
Ohio—obstructions to the commerce of the, 327
" —importance of canal around the falls of the, . 328
" —nationality of improvements of the, 328
Orleanists—regency of the, . 385
Ohio—obstructions to commerce of the, . 416

Port-au-Prince—description of, . 34
Paper Money—depreciation of Haytien, . 35
Population—population in U. S. of male and female, . 87
Public Lands—report of Commissioner-General of, . 177
Postmaster-General—report of the, . 181
Pork—exports of, . 198
Peru—the silver mines of, . 235
" —civilization of, . 239
Post-Offices—description of Brazilian, . 247
Peru—grants made by, . 250
Philanthropy—negro slavery and modern, 263
Pauperism—U. S. census returns of, . 272
Periodicals—American and European, comparison of, . 325

PAGE.
Provisions—comparison of prices of, . 406
Pork—supply of, . 409
Pacific—railroad to the, . 506
" —New-York and Chicago as termini to railroad to, . 509
" —northern route to the, . 511
" —estimated cost of railroad to the, . 513
" —Governor Stephens' report of survey to the, . 515
" —survey of Walker and other passes to, . 517
Porto Rico—commerce of, . 522
" —imports and exports at, . 523
Pacific—southern route to the, . 545
Potato—sweet, culture of, . 601

Rivers—improvement of, . 66
" —freshets and sedimentary matter of, . 67
" —importance of hydrometrical measurement of, . 69
" —requisite data to commence improvements of, . 71
Railroads—Louisville and Knoxville, . 101
" —Ohio Central, . 101
" —Ohio and Mississippi, . 101
" —Chicago and St. Louis, . 101
" —Fredericksburg and Gordonsville, . 102
" —Louisville and Nashville, . 102
Russia—designs of, . 126
Railroads—beneficial effects of, . 179
" —Opelousas and Great Western, 205
" —Montgomery and Pensacola, . 207
" —North Carolina, . 208
" —Wilmington and Raleigh, . 208
" —Panama, . 208
" —New-Orleans, Jackson, and Gt. Northern, . 209
" —Evansville and Illinois, . 210
" —Erie of New-York, . 210
" —Mobile and Ohio, . 210
" —wonders of British, . 211
Rivers—remarks on the regulation of, . 225
" —capacity to improve, . 227
" —dredging of, . 229
Russia—question between Turkey and, . 277
" —Bonaparte and the Emperor of, . 279
" —encroachments of, . 283
Ratio—agricultural states, . 321
" —U. S. populational, . 322
Revenue—European states, . 422
Railroads—Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Wilmington, . 439
" —Western Massachusetts, . 440
" —South Carolina, Charleston, and Hamburg, . 440
" —Nashville and Cincinnati, . 441
" —subscription recommended to Blue Ridge, . 441
" —the Pacific, . 506
" —New-York and Chicago as termini for Pacific, . 509
" —great northern route to Pacific by, . 511
Revenue—Porto Rico customs, . 524
Rice—uses and production of, . 535
" —Louisiana adapted to cultivation of, 537
Russia—the commerce of, . 540
" —classified population of, . 541
" U. S. imports and exports to, . 544
Railroads—Mississippi acts concerning, . 549
Red River—improvement of, . 551
Rice—culture of at the South, . 606
Railroads—Ohio and Mississippi, . 617
" —Cincinnati and Fort Wayne, . 619
Railroads—statistics of, . 647
" —New-Orleans and Pacific, . 649

St. Domingo—imports and exports of, . 38

PAGE.
Slavery—assailants of Southern, . 46
“ —grounds taken by religious bodies against, . . . 53
“ —ancient Jewish system of, . 59
Southwest—free banking of the, . . 78
Sabianism—belief of, . . . 129
Smallpox—decline of Indian population by, 145
Statistics—Indian population, . . 148
Southwest—early life in the, . . 155
Specie—exports of, . . . 193
Silver—the Parac mines of, . . 232
“ —the Peruvian mines of, . . 235
Slavery—modern philanthropy and negro, 263
Slave Trade—the Brazilian, . . 266
“ —vessels engaged in the, . 268
Slavery—far worse than chattel, . . 269
Security—protection to, . . 315
Statistics—U. S. 1850, . . . 320
Slaves—ratio of increase of, . . 323
St. Paul's, Minnesota—entrepot for overland Pacific route at, . 351
“ “ —mercantile trade of, 452
St. Louis—population, &c., of, . . 397
“ —marvellous prosperity of, . 399
“ —table of monthly receipts at, . 405
Ship Building—freights and, . . 426
System—measuring by the decimal, . 445
“ —French metrical, . . 447
“ —analysis of the French metrical, . 449
South Carolina—manufacturing in, . 452
“ —advantages for manufacturing of, . . 455
Statistics, Vital—Carlisle Table of, . 503
Statistics, Medical—census of 1850, . 552
State, Secretary of—report on immigration of, ... 552
South—sea-coast crops of the, . . 589
“ —rotation of crops at the, . . 603
“ —alluvial lands of the, . . 603

Turks—the Holy Land and the, . . 22
Turkey—commerce and destiny of, . 109
Turks—various wars of the, . . 113
“ —governmental policy of the, . 115
Turkey—elements of the population of, . 117
“ —physical geography of, . . 119
“ —ports on the Black Sea belonging to, ... 125
Trebizond—articles of import at, . 126
Thugs—notice of the E. Indian, . . 139
Texas—Henry S. Brown, pioneer of, . 155
“ —Camanche country in, . . 157
Telegraph—the, . . . 159
“ —advantages of, . . 165
“ —shipwreck averted by, . 167
“ —commercial advantages of the, 169
Treasury—report of Secretary of the, . 171
Tariff—Secretary of Treasury's proposal to reduce, . . . 175
Telegraph—influence of the, . . 253
Turkey—question between Russia and, . 277
“ —last bulwark of, . . 299
Tariff—crushing effects of the, . 309
Tonnage—Great Britain and U. S., . 422

PAGE.
Texas—prospects of, . . 473
“ —sheep raising in, . . 475
Tobacco—trade of 1853 in, . . 477
“ —Maryland and Ohio leaf, . 479
Tariffs—effects of differential, . . 522
Texas—railroad act of, . . 545

Uncle Tom's Cabin—Key to, . . 46
United States—ratio of increase of population of, . . . 83
“ —population, births, &c., in the, . . 85
“ —proportion of white males to females in the, . 87
“ —value of Church property in the, . . . 89
“ —number of children attending school in, . . 91
“ —newspapers and periodicals in the, . . 93
“ —past, present, and future of the Indians of the, . 148
“ —the manufactures of the, . 187
“ —rapid strides in industrial pursuits of, . . 301
“ —1850, statistics of, . 320
“ —future progress of, . 321
“ —ratio of increase population of, . . . 322
“ —Russian exports to and imports from, . . 544
“ —system of cotton manufactures in, . . 629
“ —commerce and navigation of, . . . 652
“ —vessels built in, '53, . 653

Velasco—battle of, . . . 159

World—machine for printing 12 colors, the greatest in the, . . . 2
Wood, Gov'r—account of a visit to Jamaica by, ... 36
Webster, Dan.—Clark Mills' bust of, . 41
Washington—statue by Mills of, . 45
War—Report of Secretary of, . . 185
World—population of the, . . 256
“ —civilized portion of the, . . 258
“ —cotton trade of the, . . 337
West—great cities of the, . . 397
Wheat. (See Corn Trade.) . . 411
Wrecks—1853, list of, . . . 424
Wool—the woollen trade and, . . 466
“ —progress in Great Britain of manufacture of, . . . 467
“ —Chilian, Peruvian, and other, . 469
“ —London trade in, . . 471
“ —British imports of, . . 471
West—great cities of the, . . 490
“ —hog business of the, . . 539

Yellow Fever—cases at New-Orleans of, . 214
“ —New-Orleans, . . 463

DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL
OF
Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, Internal Improvements,
Statistics, etc., etc.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

VOL. XVI. JANUARY, 1854. No. 1.

Art. I.—GROWTH, TRADE, AND MANUFACTURE OF COTTON.

(Concluded from November number.)

It was through Mr. Jackson's exertions that the Boston and Lowell Railroad was undertaken and completed. It was opened for travel in 1835, and soon justified the wisdom of his anticipations. Afterwards, on the death of Mr. Booth, he had the immediate charge of the locks and canal company. During the last few years of his life, he was treasurer and agent to the Great Falls Manufacturing Company, at Somersworth, which owes its success mainly to his able management. His labors and responsibilities were severe, and a gradual prostration of his physical system admonished him that the time was drawing near when his connection with earthly pursuits must cease. He died at his residence in Beverly, the 12th of September, 1847, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. The news of his death was received as a public calamity.

During the period above mentioned, whilst manufactures were being firmly established in New-England, they were rapidly spreading in other sections of the Union. My limits will only allow me to refer to the earliest establishments in our own State. The first cotton factory in New-York was built by Doctor Capron, in Oneida county, about the year 1809. Then followed the mills of Hudson, Columbia county, built by Mr. Jenkins; then those of Pleasant Valley, Dutchess county, and the Matteawan mills in 1814; about the same time several mills were erected in Orange county; one at Ramapo, Rockland county, by the Messrs. Pierson; also one at Schaghticoke. The county of Oneida has probably more capital employed in this branch of business than any other in this State. The New-York Mills, in that county, under the management of the Messrs. Wolcotts, enjoy a justly distinguished reputation for the excellence of their goods. These gentlemen are entitled to distinguished credit for their successful efforts to improve and perfect the cotton manufacture. Many other factories have also been erected in other parts of the State. But the capital invested in this branch of industry is much less in New-York than in some of the smallest New-England States. The manufacture has also spread in Pennsylvania and Maryland, some of the Western, and many of the Southern States; among the latter, Georgia takes the lead.

Calico-printing was commenced in this country the latter part of the eighteenth century. As early as 1790, Herman Vandausen, a German, settled in East Greenwich, R. I., and commenced block-printing by hand. The cloths printed by him were mostly of domestic manufacture. He, however, soon gave up the business as unprofitable. About this time, also, many cloths were imported from India, and printed in Providence, in the same manner, by foreign workmen who had come to reside there.

Zachariah Allen, ancestor of the present distinguished manufacturers and calico printers of that name, in Rhode Island, and who was then largely engaged in the East India trade, was among the first who had India cloths printed in this country. Block-printing was also commenced very early in Philadelphia, by an Englishman of the name of Thorpe. Somewhere between 1820 and 1824, Mr. John Thorpe, a nephew of the above-named gentleman, built an establishment for the firm of Crocker & Richmond, at Taunton, Mass. Their first printing was done by hand.

The first cylinder machine for printing calicoes, I believe, was put in operation at this place. The model of this machine, together with some engraved copper cylinders, was imported from England, in 1825, by Wm. J. Breed, now living in Providence, R. I. At the time he made this importation, all such exports were strictly prohibited by the English government, and it was very difficult even for skilful workmen to get away. The law was however soon altered, when the business made rapid progress. Andrew Robeson, Esq., of New-Bedford, Mass., was one of the pioneers in this business, and still has, in possession of the family, the first calico-printing machine made in this country. The greatest improvements in this business have been brought from abroad. A machine, invented by R. L. Hawes, of Worcester, Mass., has, however, just been completed for a distinguished printer in Rhode Island, for printing twelve colors by one operation, *which has never before been attempted in the world.* We are not informed of the exact amount of calicoes printed in the United States at present; but it is very large, and has nearly superseded foreign importations. Some idea of its increase may be formed from the fact, that about 1826 the Merrimack works at Lowell, Mass., which then produced less than one thousand pieces per week, now turn out about ten thousand five hundred pieces per week. There are some other large establishments in Massachusetts, and several in Rhode Island, whose production is nearly or quite equal to this. In New-York, New-Jersey, and Pennsylvania, there are also other calico-printing establishments, where the art is carried to a very high degree of perfection.

We will likewise take occasion in this place to notice briefly a few of the men whose names will be honored when the history of the cotton manufactures of the United States shall be written.

Mr. Paul Moody, before mentioned, was born in Newbury, Mass., in 1777, and before the manufacturing enterprise of Messrs. Lowell & Jackson, was in partnership in the manufacturing business with Mr. Ezra Worthen. In 1814, he removed to Waltham, and rendered the most valuable services in starting the first mill at that place; he supplied an important movement in the power loom of Messrs. Lowell & Jackson, to which that machine owed its successful operation. He invented what is called the dead spindle, which was introduced at Waltham, and is now used in many mills in Lowell. The Rhode Island machinery employ the "live spindle," copied from the English. He invented what is called the "filling frame," which is still in use in Waltham and Lowell. He invented a "governor" to regulate the speed of their wheels, and the first one he made was in successful operation until 1832. With the assistance of Mr. Lowell, he invented the "double speeder," a piece of machinery the celebrated Dr. Bowditch declared, "required for its construction the greatest mathematical power of any piece of mechanism with which he was acquainted." Besides the double speeder, the Waltham Company patented a "spinning frame," dressing frame, and "warper," all the invention of Mr. Moody. It is an evidence of the great value attached to the services of this gentleman, that when, in 1823, he went to Lowell, taking with him models and mechanics from Waltham, the company at Lowell paid the Waltham Company, as a remuneration, one hundred thousand dollars. He was at the head of the machine shop in Lowell until the time of his death, July 7th, 1831.

To Mr. Kirk Boot, Lowell was as much indebted for its success as to any other individual. He was there when the first mill was erected, superintending the interest of the Merrimack Company; and was appointed to the agency of the locks and canals, upon the reorganization of that company in 1825. As a man of prompt business habits, of great power to manage men, and to grasp and master extensive and complicated details, rarely has he been excelled. At the same time, by his high sense of honor, his lofty integrity, his quick perception and decided practice of what was right, he had always a hold upon the respect and affections of those he employed. He devoted his services to the company until his death, which took place the 11th of April, 1837.

Mr. W. B. Leonard, of New-York, who was for a long time connected with the Matteawan Company, has rendered valuable services to the cause of manufactures, both by importing and improving machinery. The loom introduced at Waltham, heretofore noticed, in consequence of being confined to a certain slow speed, did not go into general use, and was succeeded by what is known as the Scotch loom, introduced at Providence, R. I., from abroad, by Mr. Gilmour. It remained as introduced till 1827, when important mechanical improvements were made by Mr. Leonard, by which the texture of the cloth was much improved. This loom, as improved, was first introduced into the New-York mills, and continues in use to the present day. The next improvement was a spreading and lapping machine, introduced from England, by Mr. Leonard, then, an improvement on the "railway drawing head," a very valuable one, patented by him in 1833.

The "self-acting mule" came into use in England and Scotland about the time the American manufacturers were turning their attention to making printing cloths. Under the laws of England, it could not be exported; and, as our laws then were, a foreigner could not take out a patent in this country. Many enterprising men went to England for the purpose of bringing out models of this machine. They, however, did not succeed. But Mr. W. A. Leonard went out, *and succeeded*, at great hazard to himself, in bringing it to this country. The model was made of the exact size to fill a travelling trunk, and smuggled into the cabin of the vessel whilst Mr. Leonard and the captain (by previous agreement) were fighting, for the amusement of the custom-house officers. During the time they were obtaining the model, Mr. W. B. Leonard was at Washington procuring a special law to secure the right of the machine to the inventor. He had prevailed on the committee to make a favorable report; but the final passage of the bill was in much doubt, when an honorable member of the House, from Kentucky, determined that everything should be done that could possibly benefit his constituents, strongly advocated the passage of the bill on the ground that his State and the whole West were as much interested in the improvement of the breed of mules as the North; and he declared, as his "firm conviction, that Kentucky could raise more and better mules than any other section of the country." The bill became a law, and the mules were readily bought by the Eastern manufacturers; but we are not aware that the breed of mules in Kentucky has been materially improved by the operation!

One of the most ingenious machines ever invented was produced by Amos Whittemore, Esq., of Cambridge, Mass., in 1797, for making cards, which, by a simple operation, bends, cuts, and sticks the card-teeth with a cheapness, celerity and perfection before supposed impossible. This machine has been patented abroad, and is the only one ever invented that approximates at all to the desired result.

Among the many artists and mechanics to whom this important manufacture is indebted for its present highly improved condition, Mr. William Mason, of Taunton, Mass., stands preeminent. This gentleman is a native of Mystic, Conn., where he was born in 1808. At the age of thirteen, he commenced working in a cotton factory. At seventeen, he went into a machine shop, where he at once displayed great mechanical genius and powers of invention. He soon perfected an improvement in the power loom for weaving diapers and cloths of that description. The frame known as the "Ring Spinner," invented by John Thorpe, and improved upon by several others, was, nevertheless, inefficient, until perfected by Mr. Mason. He saw the advantages of the principle upon which it was intended to operate, and by his inventive genius supplied the defects in its construction, and rendered it a very important and valuable machine, which has now gone into extensive use among manufacturers. But the great invention on which his fame principally rests is his "Self-acting Rule." The attention of the best mechanics in England and America had long been turned to this invention, and several different machines of this kind had been produced in England. As early as 1838, Mr. Mason gave his mind to it; and after laborious, patient and persevering application, he succeeded in bringing the machine to operate, and about 1839 took out his first patent. About 1843, he took out a second patent for improvements therein, and the machine began to be appreciated and adopted by manufacturers. He has continued to improve upon it, and it is now, probably, as perfect a spinning machine as there is in the world. We have seen more than 33,000 spindles, constructed upon Mr. Mason's principle, operating in one room at the same time, producing the most beautiful yarn, and with such admirable facility and precision, as to suggest the idea "of reason and intelligence in the machines themselves." This gentleman, whose rare and unobtrusive modesty is exceeded only by his skill and untiring industry, has made and put in operation upon his principle in the United States, about 600,000 spindles. His superior artistic taste has contributed more to the beauty and just proportion of form of the various machines to which his attention has been devoted, than that of any other artisan. In addition to cotton machinery, he is now engaged in the manufacture of *locomotive engines;* and should he display the same taste and skill in their construction which he has developed in the production of other machinery, the *iron horse* of the United States will exceed in symmetrical elegance and beauty that of any other country.

The "Danforth Frame," (or, "Cap Spinner,") was invented by Mr. Charles Danforth, a native of Bristol county, Massachusetts, and a descendant of one of the old Pilgrim families of that commonwealth. He commenced work as a throstle piecer in a cotton factory, as early as 1811, at the age of fourteen years, and continued to be employed in operating cotton machinery in its various departments in different establishments in his native State until 1821, when he removed to the State of New-York, and was employed about four years by the Matteawan Company, at Fishkill. In 1825, he removed to Ramapo, Rockland county, New-York, where he was employed as superintendent of a small cotton mill, and was acting in that capacity in 1828, when he made this discovery. The superiority of this machine consists in its rapid production of yarn, and it is said that a lower quality of stock can be used to advantage, and at the same time a good quality of yarn produced. The usual speed of the bobbin is 8,000 revolutions per minute, and the product eight hanks per spindle per day of number twenty, or in that proportion for other numbers. The ingenious inventor secured a patent in England, in 1830, where he put in operation some 15,000 spindles on his plan, and realized a handsome sum for his patent rights. The machine is mentioned with commendation by some of the ablest English writers on mechanics, under the name of the "American throstle." Mr. Danforth has put about 200,000 spindles in operation in this country, on his principle; and we are happy to say of him what cannot be said of all inventors, he has realized a handsome fortune by the fruits of his industry and ingenuity. He is still engaged in business in Paterson, New-Jersey.

About the year 1823, Mr. George Danforth, of Taunton, Mass., brother of the inventor of the "Cap Spinner," invented an important machine called the counter-twist speeder, but generally known as the "Taunton speeder." The double speeder, invented at Waltham, by Messrs. Lowell & Moody, was the only one in use in this country, and was so expensive, as to bear with great severity upon manufacturers of small means. The price of the Waltham speeder, with twenty spindles, was $2,400. The counter-twist speeder, invented by Mr. Danforth, was sold for $350, and could do more work than the Waltham machine. This invention, with various modifications, but essentially on Danforth's principle, has gone largely into use in this country and

Great Britain. Mr. Dyer, a native of Rhode Island, took out to England Whittemore's card machine, and for many years monopolized the manufacture of card clothing in England. Mr. Danforth's counter-twist speeder was also placed in his hands, and from these two American inventions he has realized a princely fortune.

Great difficulty had been experienced from the want of a proper machine to prepare the cotton for the cards. A lapping and spreading machine had been introduced from England, by Mr. Leonard; but this machine was not satisfactory. Some other improvements had also been made by others, but they were inefficient. About 1831, Mr. John C. Whitin, of Whitinsville, Mass., seeing the great necessity of a machine for this purpose, turned his attention to the invention of one. After spending about one year in patient investigation, he succeeded in inventing a machine known as "Whitin's Picker and Lapper," which has received the decided approval of manufacturers, and gone into extensive use. He took out letters patent for it, 20th July, 1832.

Before the invention of any machine of this kind, cotton had to be picked by hand, at an expense of about six cents per pound, and the work, even at this price, was imperfectly done. With Mr. Whitin's machine it can be picked, lapped and prepared for the cards for about one mill per pound. It is unquestionably the best machine for the purpose intended that has ever been produced. Mr. Whitin, in company with his brothers, under the firm of Paul Whitin & Sons, have a large machine-shop and cotton factory at Whitinsville, Mass., and are justly known as business men of great enterprise, unblemished integrity, accomplished machinists, and superior manufacturers.

Among the individuals who by their personal exertions have contributed most largely to the increase of the cotton manufactures of the United States, is the Hon. Charles T. James, of Rhode Island. Although not claiming to be an inventor, he has displayed great skill and tact in bringing out and combining the inventions of others, and has been the great advocate of the application of steam power as a motor for manufacturing purposes. Mr. James commenced learning to make machines in 1826. By the year 1830, he had become thoroughly and practically conversant with all kinds of cotton machinery then in this country, and had built more or less of all kinds of it with his own hands. In 1830–31, he started a cotton mill at Thompson, Conn., and in 1831–32 built the machinery for a mills to spin and weave No. 60, the finest work then ever attempted in the United States. In 1833, rebuilt the Kennedy mills, so called, at Central Falls, near Pawtucket, R. I. In 1834, commenced overhauling the Providence steam-mill for Samuel Slater, Esq. Up to this time Mr. James was but little acquainted with steam power. He continued in this mill for some time, and made many valuable improvements in the manufacture of fine cottons, and also in the steam-engine.

In 1837 and '38, built what is known as the Bartlett mill, No. 1, at Newburyport; in 1840 and '41, erected Bartlett mill, No. 2, at the same place.

In 1843 and '44, built the James mill, at Newburyport, and the Penn mill, at Pittsburg. In 1844, '45, '46, and '47, built the Globe mill, at Newburyport, Conestogo mill, No. 1, at Lancaster, Penn., and the Naumkeag mills, at Salem, Mass. The latter is one of the largest mills, as a whole, in the United States, and contains over 33,000 spindles. During the last-named period, three other mills were erected under the direction of Mr. James; one in Maine, one in Massachusetts, and the other in Rhode Island. In 1847, '48, '49 and '50, he erected the Charleston cotton mill, Charleston, S. C.; two mills at Fitchville, Conn.; one at Rockport, Mass.; two more at Lancaster, Penn., for the Conestogo Company; one at Harrisburg, Penn.; one at Reading, Penn.; one at Sag Harbor, L. I.; one at Cannelton, Ind.; and reconstructed two others at Gloucester, N. J.

In 1851, he erected the Atlantic muslin de laine mill at Olneyville, near Providence, R. I. This mill was commenced in January, 1851, and is now in full operation.

The whole number of mills planned and erected by Mr. James since he commenced operations is something over thirty, containing in the aggregate nearly 300,000 spindles, and between 7,000 and 8,000 looms. We are informed that the value of the aggregate product of all the mills built or reconstructed by him is about $8,000,000 per annum. In 1851, Mr. James was elected a member of the United States Senate by his native State, and is at the present time a member of that august body.

About the year 1842, Mr. E. B. Bigelow, of Massachusetts, made an important invention for a power loom for weaving ginghams, and other colored goods. In 1844, a project for weaving checks and ginghams was started; it found immediate favor in Boston, and the stock was readily subscribed. A location was fixed upon, on an unoccupied fall of the Nashua River, at Lancaster. The real estate was purchased, the work was commenced, and prosecuted with all possible dispatch. The cost of the mill was $802,284 16, and is producing about 4,500,000 yards of ginghams per annum, of a quality and cost which has nearly driven all similar foreign goods out of the American market. Although the cost of the mill was thought to be high, it had paid a profit up to 1851 of $102,000. Mr. Bigelow has also invented several other valuable and important machines, among which is a power-loom for weaving coach lace, and one for weaving Brussels and tapestry carpets. These inventions show high mechanical genius, and place him in the front rank of American inventors.

There are also many other meritorious men who, by their inventions and improvements, and skill as superintendents and overseers of factories, deserve special commendation. There has been a series of continual inventions and improvements in machines since they were introduced into this country. A bare enumeration of them would occupy too much time on this occasion. The great capitalists and merchants of Boston and other cities and towns in New-England, with clear-sighted and far-seeing sagacity, early discovered the great advantages that would accrue from the introduction of this branch of industry, and lent their powerful aid to its support.

In speaking of labor-saving machinery, there is one thing that is generally lost sight of, and that is, the great merit there has been displayed in inventing the tools which are used to make the machinery with. A visit to a machine shop, where the machines are made, is quite as interesting as to the factory where they are used. In this department, the Americans stand preeminent.

In a report drawn up by the late T. P. Jackson, whom we have previously mentioned, it is stated, that prior to the passage of the act of 1816, there were 11,000,000. lbs. of cotton consumed per annum. There are no data to be relied upon for continuous quantities spun between 1816 and 1825–26. Since that time, returns have been annually made. In 1826 and 1827, the quantity spun in the United States was 103,483 bales, estimated at 330 lbs. each, net of tare, equal to 34,149,390 lbs. From 1828 to 1830, there were embarrassments among the manufacturers and their customers; consequently the consumption was less than might otherwise have been expected, being 43,646,640 lbs., or 126,512 bales of 345 lbs. each; in 1832 and 1833, the quantity reached 194,412 bales of 360 lbs. each; in 1835–36, it was 236,733 bales; in 1837–38, 246,063 bales; in 1839–40, 295,193 bales. In 1841–42, there was a great manufacturing and mercantile distress, and consumption fell off to 267,850 bales. In 1842–43, it rose to 325,129 bales. In 1844–45, the amount was 389,006 bales. In the above statement, the quantity manufactured refers to such purchases as are made by our manufacturers from bales brought to exporting ports. But there is a further quantity taken from plantations in the interior to mills in the Western and Southern States, which must be added to the 389,006 bales. It is estimated at 41,000 bales, making 430,006 bales, of 410 lbs. each, equal to 176,302,460 lbs. In 1845–46, 176,800,000 lbs. This is an increase from 11,000,000 lbs. in 1816 to 1845–46, of more than sixteen-fold in twenty-nine years.

In 1847–48, we took 531,772 bales from the shipping ports, and by an estimate 75,000 from the plantations of the Southern and Western mills, making 606,770 bales of 420 lbs., net of tare, equal to 254,843,400 lbs. Here is an augmentation of about forty-five per cent. in manufactures in three years. The result of this rapid increase was an over production of goods, consequent low prices, and serious loss to the manufacturers.

Since 1847–48, the consumption of cotton has been less than in some previous years, owing to the failure of some concerns and the short working of others. In 1849–50, it was 595,269 bales. In 1850–51, in consequence of the very general depression of the business, and the high price which cotton obtained, the quantity consumed did not probably much exceed 495,000 bales.

Prior to 1826, there was no separate record kept of the value of cotton goods exported, but it must have been quite small up to that time. Since then the records kept by the Treasury Department show the declared value of cotton manufactures exported from the United States to be as follows:

1826	$1,138,125	1839	$2,975,033
1827	1,159,414	1840	3,549,607
1828	1,010,232	1841	3,122,546
1829	1,259,457	1842	2,970 690
1830	1,318,183	1843*	3,223,550
1831	1,126,313	1844†	2,898,780
1832	1,229,574	1845	4,327,928
1833	2,532,517	1846	3,545,481
1834	2,085,994	1847	4,082,523
1835	2,858,681	1848	5,718,205
1836	2,255,734	1849	4,933,129
1837	2,831,473	1850	4,734,424
1838	3,758,755	1851	7,241,205

By this table we learn that the whole declared value of the exports of the manufactures of cotton from the United States, from 1826 to 1851, inclusive, amounts to *seventy-seven millions, eight hundred and eighty-seven thousand, five hundred and fifty-three dollars*, ($77,887,553.)

By the census returns of 1850, the amount of capital invested in the different States, with various other interesting statistics (some of which, however, we do not think are correct) in relation to the cotton manufacture, were as follows:

---

* Nine months to 30th June.

† Year ending 30th June.

Amount of Capital invested in the COTTON MANUFACTURE *in the United States, and Value of the entire Product, &c., as per the Census of* 1850.

STATE.	Capital invested.	Bales cotton.	Tons Coal.	Value of all raw mater'l.	No. of hands employed.		Entire wages per month.		Average wages per month.		Value of entire product.	Yds. sheeting, &c.	Sundries.
					Males.	*Females.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Males.*	*Females.*			
Maine.........	$3,329,700	31,531	2,921	$1,573,110	780	2,959	$22,895	$35,973	29 35	$12 15	$2,596,356	32,852,556	—
N. Hampshire.	10,950,500	83,026	7,679	4,839,429	2,911	9,211	75,713	124,131	25 45	13 47	6,830,619	113,106,247	149,700 lbs. yarn.
Vermont......	202,500	2,243	—	114,415	94	147	1,460	1,861	15 55	12 67	196,100	1,651,000	53,050 “ “
Massachusetts	28,455,630	223,607	46,545	11,289,309	9,293	19,437	212,892	264,514	23 01	13 55	19,712,461	298,751,392	351,660 “ “
Rhode Island.	6,675,000	50,713	13,116	3,484,579	4,959	5,916	92,282	76,666	18 61	12 95	6,447,120	96,725,612	1,902,980 “ thr'd & y'n.
Connecticut ..	4,219,100	39.483	2,866	2,509,062	2,708	3,478	51,679	41,060	19 08	11 81	4,257,522	51,780,700	950,000 “ yarn.
New-York	4,176,920	37,778	1,539	1,965,973	2,632	3,668	48,244	35,699	18 33	9 68	3,591,989	44,901,475	2,180,600 “ “
New-Jersey ..	1,483,500	14,437	4,467	666,645	616	1,096	11,078	10,487	17 98	9 56	1,100,524	8,122,580	2,000,000 “ “
Pennsylvania.	4,528,925	44,162	24,189	3,152,530	3,564	4,099	63,642	40,656	17 86	9 91	5,322,262	45,746,790	5,308,561 “ “
Delaware.	460,100	4,730	1,920	312,068	413	425	6,326	4,926	15 55	11 59	538,439	3,521,636	533,000 “ “
Maryland.	2,236,000	23,325	2,212	1,165,579	1,008	2,014	15,546	19,108	15 42	9 53	2,220,504	27,683,923	46,000 “ “
Virginia......	1,908,900	17,785	4,805	828,375	1,275	1,688	12,983	11,791	10 15	6 98	1,486,384	15,640,107	1,755,915 “ “
N'th Carolina.	1,058,800	13,617	—	531,903	442	1,177	5,153	7,216	11 66	6 13	831,342	2,470,110	2,267,000 “ “
South Carolina	857,200	9,929	—	295,971	399	620	5,565	5,151	13 94	8 30	748,338	6,563,737	1,348,343 “ “
Georgia.......	1,736,156	20,230	1,000	900,419	873	1,399	12,725	10,352	14 57	7 39	2,135,044	7,209,292	4,198,351 “ “
Florida........	80,000	600	—	30,000	28	67	900	335	32 14	5 00	49,920	624,000	—
Alabama......	651,900	5,208	—	237,081	346	369	4,053	2,946	11 71	7 98	382,260	3,081,000	790,000 “ “
Mississippi....	38,000	430	—	21,500	19	17	270	101	14 21	5 34	30,500	—	171,000 “ “
Louisiana.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—	—	—
Texas.........	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—	—	—
Arkansas.	16,500	170	—	8,975	13	18	190	106	14 61	5 88	16,637	—	81,150 “ “
Tennessee....	669,600	6,411	3,010	297,500	310	581	3,394	3,730	10 95	6 42	510,624	363,250	2,326,250 “ “
Kentucky.....	239,000	3,760	720	180,907	181	221	2,707	2,070	14 62	9 36	273,439	1,003,000	725,000 “ “
Ohio..........	297,000	4,270	2,152	237,060	132	269	2,191	2,534	16 60	9 05	394,700	280,000	433,000 “ “
Michigan.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—	—	—
Indiana.......	43,000	675	300	28,220	38	57	495	386	13 00	6 77	44,200	—	300,000 “ “
Illinois........	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—	—	—
Missouri......	102,000	2,160	1,658	86,446	75	80	820	800	10 94	10 00	142,900	—	13,160 bales batting.
Iowa..........	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—	—	
Wisconsin....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—	—	
California ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—	—	
Dist. Columbia	85,000	960	—	67,000	41	103	575	825	14 02	8 01	100,000	1,400,000	
Total......	$74,501,031	641,240	121,099	$34,835,056	33,150	50,136	$653,778	$708,414			$61,869,184	763,678,407	27,873,600 lbs. and bales.

This is the result of the progress of our country in this department of industry in little more than fifty years, mainly brought about by the introduction of labor-saving machinery.

"Our clock strikes when there is a change from hour to hour; but no hammer in the Horologue of Time peals through the universe when there is a change from era to era."* May we not, however, clearly discern in the progress of invention in the last half century, and its devotion to works of usefulness and the arts of peace, the commencement of not only a new, but of a more truly glorious and happy era in the history of mankind?

During the earlier part of the period we have been considering, the fields of Europe were red with the blood of contending armies. If there was a pause in the whirlwind of battle, it was but the pause of exhaustion to gain new strength for renewed contention. This has passed away.

A spectacle new in this world's history has taken its place; the nations of the earth gather together in a gorgeous edifice, new in its architectural designs, appropriately named THE CRYSTAL PALACE, to test the superiority of artistic skill.

The monarch of earth's proudest nation takes the lead in this high festival, giving an earnest that in all coming time, labor and artistic excellence shall bear the palm and receive distinguished honors.

Art. II.—THE CONSULAR SYSTEM.

RECENT political occurrences, transpiring at home and abroad, considered in connection with the general changes in civil life, and the improved commercial relations of States, have added much to the importance of the consular office, and induced the inquiry, whether as an element of this government at least, the system is not greatly defective, and its functions seriously impaired, by the undefined and equivocal character the office, by law or custom, is made to assume. Statesmen, old in experience, and versed in the affairs of government and commercial law, have declared their inability to expound what are the functions which appertain to the consular office, as constituted by the laws of the United States; and they are even more uncertain as regards the provisions of what is denominated the *consular code*. It is essential that the system should be revised, not only because the demands of commerce point to the necessity of material modifications—not only because, thereby, abuses will be rectified affecting the seaman, which have gone uncorrected for years, and which have stood as precedents by which others have been allowed to multiply—but because in this "age of progression," it is needful that every precaution should be adopted against involving our interests in grave foreign issues, which may be occasioned by the extravagant zeal of commercial agents, acting from warm impulses, and unrestrained by legislative enactments which should govern them in their office. We do not take the position, that consuls should be divested of all diplomatic authority; we are not espousing the contrary view, and demanding for them a vesture of full diplomatic powers. So far as our remarks on this score extend, we are perfectly indifferent what amount and what degree of responsibility attaches to their official functions. Our position is, that their duties shall be clearly and unequivocally defined by law, and not warranted only by custom; that they shall be obedient to strict instructions in the performance of their mission; that they shall not go out as commercial ambassadors, wholly ignorant of the duties of an office the character of which has never been positively decided, and, by misguided acts, embroil the nation in an injurious foreign war. Let consuls enter upon their duties with the laws as a text-book in their hands, and by these be entirely governed in their official acts. Imperfect as our consular system is, it is one of the most dangerous experiments that the government can be guilty of, to grant an exequatur to a commercial agent, and transport him to some foreign shore, and expect him, especially at a period so inflammable and revolutionary as the present, to avoid all the snares of chance action, and so comport himself as to prevent fatal collisions while he endeavors to do justice to his country and his countrymen. If he is suffered to escape offence on all sides, chance has had more to do with it than his construction of the legal duties of his profession; but if he fails, and unfortunate results attend his mission, he is excusable; for he throws himself back upon the *common usages* of the office, and finds ample justification for his conduct therein.

---

* Carlyle.

The consular office was originally one of commercial expediency only, and involved neither judicial nor diplomatic responsibilities. France, at the period of the Crusades, had extensive commercial interests in Italy and the Levant; and the protracted agitations which the Crusades occasioned, required that agents should be appointed, or persons resident duly empowered, whose duty it would be to watch over these interests, and protect them from the dangers by which they were beset. It was as much a measure of economy to the general government, as of individual benefit to the French merchants; for a diminution of trade on the Levant, or in Italy, at that time, would have proved of serious inconvenience to the imperial exchequer. The example thus set by France was followed by other nations, until, in the sixteenth century, the consular office was erected and recognized throughout Europe. But, as we have said, there were attached to it neither judicial nor diplomatic responsibilities. It was purely a commercial institution, restricted to that sense, and as such appointed and officered. It continued to be limited to this meaning until the treaty of Dardanelles, in 1809, when Great Britain, for the better security of property in the Mediterranean and its waters, obtained for its commercial agents in the Ottoman empire original privileges, among others, the right to adjudicate in criminal suits where the defence was a British seaman. Subsequently, by treaty with the Chinese government, similar, or even more extensive privileges were obtained for British consuls in the Chinese ports; and gradually, by special concession, other nations which have sought an augmentation of consular authority, have been equally favored by these and the Barbary powers, and in few instances by the islanders of the Pacific. But all these are special, not general concessions to the consular system. Either the office still partakes of its original character, without any extension of authority (embracing criminal judicature and even political arbitrament), except in the instances named, or it has undergone important and various modifications. If the latter, by what action?—for a State has not the power in itself to enlarge the authority of a consul in a foreign port, without the consent of the government to which he may be accredited. If the former, we take it that commercial agents have latterly been exceeding their legal duties, endangering the peace of nations, and giving occasion for grave questions, which, but for the amenity of the parties mainly offended, might have led to serious results.

Admitting that our consular system is as perfect as that of most governments, on what is it actually based? It depends for its vitality on law; but it exists by tolerance only, for it would be difficult to digest from our statutes, enactments, or legislative provisions, any tangible rules for the government of the office, or a code for restraining the functionary from any act short of suspending diplomatic relations with a government. It is this unbounded license which is to be dreaded, and which, since the recent conduct of our consuls at Havana, Smyrna, Marseilles, and elsewhere, calls for legislative cognizance. While, fortunately, we feel pride in being able to say we approve of the action of our consular agents on each of these occasions, it proves that their selection for these posts was a manifestation of forecast and judgment; but it more palpably indicates how necessary it is to environ the office with legal restraints, that in future the safety of the State may not be again alike imperilled.

The actual judicial province of consuls, as defined by law, and by the decision of our courts, consists briefly in this: They may claim, in the absence of an unauthorized agent, in behalf of the citizen of their country.* They may institute proceedings *in rem*, without a special power from those for whom they act.† But they cannot receive the restitution of the thing in controversy without such power;‡ nor can they interpose a claim in a prize cause merely on account of the territorial jurisdiction of their nation.§ Custom has sanctioned these privileges, until they have come to be regarded as rights, growing out of the political and social intercourse of States; but there is no recognized universal law of nations which clothes the commercial agent with judicial power at all, or concedes to him the right of interposing superior privileges in courts of justice or equity. The office of ambassador is of different construction. It is defined by a universal law of nations; and no treaty can either affect it in enlarging the powers of the functionary, or in contracting them, without violation of the rights and dignity of other States, accrediting or not accrediting to the same courts. All other authority vested in the consul, in the administration of his office, as regards the duties due his government, is the result of a tacit agreement or absolute compact between the merchant community and the appointing power, and between individuals and their employers. These duties vary according to the conventional understanding of the parties, or the instructions which the consul receives. By treaty, as we have said, original privileges were some years since accorded to British consuls in the Ottoman empire, in the ports of China, and elsewhere. The same, or similar privileges, were secured by the United States for its commercial agents in these ports, the principal of which we shall notice.

It was held that it was unjust to place an American citizen under the restraints of a pagan government, and try him for supposed misdemeanors, committed by him in innocence of wrong according to Mohammedan or pagan belief, and to be punished according to Mohammedan or pagan codes. Article 4th of our treaty with the Sultan of Turkey says, "Offences committed by American citizens in Turkey shall be tried by their minister or *consul*, and punished according to their offence, following, in this respect, the usage observed towards the other Franks." In the 21st article of the recent treaty with China, it is provided that "citizens of the United States, who may commit any crime in China, shall be subject to be tried and punished only by the *consul*, or other public functionary of the United States, according to the laws of the United States." In thus surrendering a principle of sovereignty to the United States, these powers evidently believed that, while we were investing the consul with extraordinary judicial authority, their magnanimity would not be abused; that justice and good faith would influence our functionaries to sit in judgment with impartial integrity, and be bound to declare according to the evidence and the testimony, and without respect to their prejudices or their individual feelings.

---

* 1 Mason, 14. † 6 Wheat., 152. ‡ 10 Ibid, 66. § 3 Ibid, 435.

When we come to reflect that, according to the fee system, many of our consulates are not worth a hundred dollars a year; that men are appointed, in a majority of cases, who are not only ignorant of the laws, but of the real nature of a legal offence; that, in order to subsist, he must have augmented resources; that the offender may have extensive commercial relations, and can control the course of a great deal of trade; it must appear plain that justice is sometimes outraged, the guilty allowed to escape, and a spirit of bitterness and enmity engendered, to the prejudice of the community and the welfare of our commercial interests. It is from such seemingly trifling circumstances that the germs of future discord have their growth. This conviction is the more readily forced upon us by the reflection that Turk and Pagan, accustomed as they are to summary modes of punishment, cannot understand why our lenity covers so vast a surface of ground, while we should exact of them the very letter of the compact. Under existing treaties with Tripoli, Tunis, Morocco, and Muscat, all disputes between citizens of the United States, in those countries, are to be decided by the consul; and by treaties with Sweden, Prussia, Russia, Hanover, Portugal, and some of the States of South America, our consuls have the right to sit in judgment as arbitrators in such differences as may arise between the captains and crews of American vessels in those countries; but no act of Congress, nor any decision of the Supreme Court, based upon either law or custom, has ever prescribed the mode in which this judicial power shall be exercised! It is all discretionary with the consul, who has it within the province of his action to create the most alarming consequences. And the same laxity which exists with respect to the judicial mode of procedure, in the case of the consul to the last-named States, exists in the case of our consuls accredited to Turkey and China, who may, at their option, adopt rules, and set up a code in very antagonism to the dictates of prudence, humanity, and justice.

The principal acts of Congress which concern consuls and the consular system, were passed:—the first, April 14, 1792; the second, Feb. 28, 1803; the third, May 1, 1810; the fourth, March 13, 1813; the fifth, March 3, 1817; the sixth, March 1, 1823; the seventh, March 3, 1835; and the eighth, July 20, 1840. In these general acts—in all the wide range of consular duties—the consular agent is left almost entirely to follow his own dictates, without so much as a clause of law to direct him in the most important of all his functions. Mr. Buchanan, while Secretary of State, used this language on this score: "Congress," he said, "would not tolerate that any important officer within the United States—for example, a collector of the customs—should exercise such a discretion. How much more necessary, then, that a class of public agents, whose field of duty lies beyond the limits of the United States, far from the means of information, and whose conduct must materially affect the interests of our foreign commerce, and may, under peculiar circumstances, even endanger the peace of the country, should have their powers and duties defined in a clear and explicit manner." It is worthy of remark, in this connection, that in a majority of instances, no communication is had by the government with our consuls abroad, for intervals varying from one to eight years; during all which period, the commercial agent enjoys his office without dictation from a higher tribunal than that established by himself, and without any control over his official conduct, save his own conscience. A weak effort was made in the House of Representatives in 1846, and again in 1850, to correct this doubtful policy; but it was whelmed in the vortex of politics—lost amid the strife of sectionalism, and shared the ultimate fate of other important questions touching the general good;—it was never heard of more.

The laws as we have cited, as regards the political and judicial character of the consul, clothe him almost entirely with discretionary power. The act of 1792, which recognizes the pre-existence of the office, rather than establishes it, defines certain duties of a commercial character to which the consul shall be bound; and the subsequent acts of Congress add to and more clearly particularize these duties; but, palpable as must have appeared the omissions relating to the judicial and political functions of the consul—dangerous as it must have seemed to the framers of the subsequent laws, to vest in an agent so peculiarly circumstanced, powers that are denied every other public servant, even on the soil—they were guilty of the same oversight or want of prudence—a fault more criminal than they had precedent to avoid—by clothing the consul with almost similar discretionary power in the commercial relations of his office. Thus, what had been admitted as a wrong or blunder of legislation in the first instance, was not only *not* corrected, but those who cudgelled their brains afterwards, in the attempt to rasp down the rough prominences of the office by a perversity almost incredible, slid into the error of copying these faults in all the after legislation of Congress, even to their reiteration or confirmation in the act of 1840.

It may be argued that, inasmuch as the conduct of our consuls abroad had never occasioned other notice or remark than what was commendable to themselves and the government, a necessity, or even an expediency, had not presented for any modification of the system; and that, therefore, it deserved to be maintained intact. It needs little to break down such a view; but we doubt whether any one would seriously support it, and hence we shall pass on to more reasonable deductions. That which we call our consular system, has never caused us to be embroiled in trouble with foreign countries, by the extravagant latitude given our commercial agents, is fortunate, most fortunate; that the future will prove equally as tender of our interests, let us seriously mistrust.

But it is not this doubt only which invites us to consider the imperfections of the consular system, and to urge its revision. Apart from the subject of our political relations with foreign States—apart from the judicial character of the office in distant ports, there are individual interests involved in the question, which, though minor in detail, when associated as a whole, are quite as imposing as the other propositions. We allude—1st, to the relation of the consul to the merchant community; 2d, to the relation of the consul to the ship-owner; and 3d, to the relation of the mariner, or seaman, to both. These three general views embrace other relations, which grow out of the nature of the consular office, and the provisions made by law for the parties severally concerned.

1. The consul is authorized and instructed to expend certain moneys for the relief of destitute American seamen in foreign ports.

2. He is authorized and instructed, on the joint application of master and seaman, to discharge the latter from service, and to ship him to his own country.

3. For which purpose, three months' pay was allowed the seaman, under the act of 1803, two-thirds to be employed in bearing his expenses to the United States, and one-third to go towards founding seamen's retreats abroad, or hospitals, in which the sick or disabled were to be cared for, until they could embark for their homes, or return to their duties; but this clause, by the act of 1840, has, without the least show of reason or justice, been abolished. And,

4. The consul is allowed a certain per cent. on the moneys expended by him, for the benefit of the seaman, according as circumstances may demand.

On all moneys so expended, the per centum, we believe, is still five cents on the dollar. It would be a violation of decency, to say nothing of courtesy, were we to charge that any of the consuls of the United States would take advantage of this provision of law, and squander money recklessly, for the sake of the per centage; it would be less charitable to intimate that bills have been made out against this government, of moneys expended, when subsequent investigation has proved the contrary, thus making the consul the recipient of both principal and interest. Nevertheless, official figures show the singular disparity—that while the act of 1803 remained in force, which required the payment by the master of three months' extra pay, for the benefit of the discharged sailor, and for hospital purposes, the consular expenditures remained almost stationary; while, since the act of 1840 abolished that clause of the act, from an annual expenditure of $40,000, the amount now drawn for verges close upon $100,000 per annum, and is rapidly increasing. The act of 1803 also provided against the discharge of the seaman in a foreign port, without such drawbacks and guaranties as made the master peculiarly liable to the government for such charges as it might incur in protecting him. The act of 1840 wholly nullifies this wise provision, and stipulates that "the consul shall discharge such mariner, on the joint application of the master and himself." He then, in all probability, becomes a charge upon the government; and the consul, in providing for him, is entitled to five cents for every dollar he expends for him. This is a powerful temptation for mal-administration of office,—the more powerful, that, owing to the mode of compensation being a fees-basis, many consulates are not worth one hundred dollars per annum.

Seamen, as a class, have their real home upon the ocean billows. Their vessel is their castle and their hearth. When, as they often do, they manifest a desire to put their feet on *terra firma*, mere curiosity tempts them, as we are led by curiosity to tempt voyages of pleasure on the water. It matters little to them whether they make a stay on land in the ports of the new world, or of the old—whether among the Chinese or the New-Yorkers, provided food is afforded for the gratification of a whim. When the master of a vessel has carried his cargo safely into a distant port, it may be that a good offer is made him for his vessel. A bargain is struck; Jack is told that his services are no longer required; he is induced for a trifle to join the master in asking of the consul his discharge; and the consul will be the gainer by granting the application. We are mentioning the condition of things as they might be, not presenting actual cases, although complaints have hitherto found their way to Washington, of excessive tampering in this respect. It was averred in one particular instance, that an American consul had lent his countenance and his purse, if not his name, to the establishment of a local hospital, a drug store, and a sailors' boarding-house. The consulate was not really worth in fees, for the legitimate duties of the office, fifty dollars per annum; yet, after the passage of the act in 1840, an incumbent received the appointment, and in 1848 was displaced; but not until he had amassed, according to filed statements, an independent fortune. Thus, however honest the consul may be in his relations to the government and the commercial community, the malfeasance of one will cause odium or suspicion to rest on all; and, instead of the office being regarded as a branch of economy and protection to the nation and the public, it will come to be, if it is not already so, considered as an agency only for the promotion of private fortunes, and an establishment derogatory to the dignity of the State.

The mode of compensating our consuls deserves next to be treated of. Almost every nation, our own excepted, pay fixed salaries to their commercial agents. This mode, as a rule, is founded in justice to the consul, and redounds in greater advantage to the government. If the office is worth maintaining, that maintenance should be ample. It should not be left to doubt for its support, nor be subject to possibilities for certainties. By the fees system, compensation, from the nature of the case, must vary. Commerce has its beaten tracks on every water, and in every hemisphere; but there are nations with whom we have more important and extensive commercial intercourse than with others. The consul at Liverpool may estimate his fees at $12,000 per annum, and they are said to have exceeded that amount, while the consul at Constantinople has drawn as low as $100 per annum, which amount it rarely much exceeds. Now here there is such a disproportion as to justify us in naming the office at Constantinople with nothing at all; and out of the one hundred and fifty, or one hundred and seventy-five consulates which we create abroad, at least two-thirds pay less than $1,000 per annum—the majority of these varying from $200 to $500. Why is it, it may be asked, if these offices are so poor in fees, that there are always persons eager to accept them, and who, many of them, return well satisfied with their missions? We fear that in dealing with this question we shall again be forced to throw unintentional discredit on the incumbents in an attempt to stigmatize the system as it is constituted. Men, eminent as merchants, as scholars, as statesmen, or as politicians, do not accept these posts; they are usually filled by young men, without an overstock of pecuniary means, but who have an adventurous spirit, and sufficient shrewdness to take every honorable advantage of fate or chance to better their condition. They may receive the appointment as consuls to foreign ports in perfect good faith—go out untarnished in character, and guiltless of intentional wrong in their minds; but if they do not prove derelict, they will still bear the brands of suspicion, and starve as a penalty for their honesty.

Let us explain. The consul speedily becomes, if he is not previously, aware that his fees will not suffice for his support.

His office, however, gives him rank; and that rank, which is his only to serve the Government and the community of that Government, he employs to subserve his private interests. He can do this only with certain advantage in one way. He agrees with a commercial house, if he be not able to establish himself at once on his own account, to become correspondent for it, consignee, or partner. His rank affords him opportunities which, as a private resident, he could not command; as consul, he can, to a certain extent, control many of the operations in the market, and direct them to his own benefit. He has it in his power, in the matter of granting ships' papers, to frustrate the actual design of a voyage; and there is no redress for the aggrieved parties; for, as we have shown, the consul is literally an unamenable agent—an officer clothed almost wholly with discretionary authority. As correspondent and consignee of a single commercial house, or of more, he is supposed to be, or may be in reality, in league against all others. If the latter, it shows the injury which individual interests are made to endure—the benefits secured by a few to the detriment of the many, and of the stupendous frauds which are permitted to exist, over which the Government is forced to extend its ægis. If the former, it shows that suspicion and distrust have grounds on which to build, and that all the rectitude that may rightfully appertain to the incumbent will not shield him, nor prevent merchants not associated with him in business from entertaining doubts of his probity and uprightness.

We shall not extend this article by enumerating other defects which are evident and hurtful in our Consular system. They have been made the subject of complaint to Congress repeatedly; not by the merchant, not by the seaman, not by one class of persons interested only, but by all parties, encouraged by the voice of the whole public. Any one who will ponder even on the outline of imperfections to which we have invited attention, must be struck with their enormity, without the enumeration of others. The foreign commerce of the United States ranks in magnitude with that of any nation of the globe; and perhaps that of no nation requires more earnest and zealous watching. It is, unlike that of a majority of countries, made up of every prime necessary and luxury of life; and one commodity bears, in its relation to the whole, an equal importance, and demands equal care and fostering watchfulness. It is vastly on the increase, and every water is destined to float our flag. The Turk, the Chinese, the Pacific Islander, or the inhabitant of the Polar zone, is in some degree worthy of commercial consideration; for that law of nature which makes one individual dependent on another, acts in the same way with communities, without respect to localities—without respect to climate. And in proportion, too, as vigilant care is taken to protect this commerce, and to cultivate a good understanding with States, will prosperity attend commercial efforts at home; and smile on the industry of all labor.

Art. III.—THE TURKS AND THE HOLY LAND.

SOME NOTES ON TOURS AND TOURISTS, PALESTINE, ETC., ETC.

Falesthin, translated Palestine, called also the Promised Land, denotes properly the entire land of Canaan, having Syria on the north, Arabia Petræa on the south, and the Mediterranean Sea on the west.

Here dwelt Abraham, and here "Lot lifted up his eyes, and beheld all the plain of Jordan, that it was well watered everywhere, even as the garden of the Lord. And Lot chose him all the plain of Jordan, and journeyed east; and Abraham dwelt in the land of Canaan." Here also are Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and Jericho on Mount Judah, and the Mounts Carmel and Tabor, and Jerizim, and Moriah, and the Mount of Olives, and the brook Kedron, and the country beyond Jordan, and Lebanon, and Lake Genesareth, and the Dead Sea, and Nazareth, and Cara, and the Valley of Jehoshaphat, and Gethsemane, with its chapel of the sepulchre of the Virgin Mary, and the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, whose walls encompass the places forever made memorable for the burial and resurrection of the Saviour. And here are monks of St. Francis, and Protestant clergymen, and Abyssinians and Greeks, Copts and Armenians, Nestorians and Jacobites, Maronites and Georgians. Here, it is said, the Jews, dispersed to the four quarters of the globe, are to congregate. Here have travelled the Abbé Guenée, and Clarke, and Durbin, and Ingraham, and Chateaubriand, and Buckingham, and Rae Wilson, and John Lewes Burckhardt, and the infidel Constantin Francois Chasseboeuf de Volney, and Nugent, and Lamartine, and a host of others.

There is something peculiarly attractive in a journey to Palestine. Judea can never cease to be a land of abounding interest, while man continues naturally to be an idolater.

Jerusalem has been sacked sixteen times. It was taken by Titus, A. D. 72; and what destruction he did not complete was finished by the Emperor Adrian, who built a town upon its ruins, which he called Ælia Capitolina. Judea was then deserted by the Jews as a people, though a small remnant remained. These scattered people the Emperor Julian endeavored vainly to recollect in Judea, upon the pledge of assistance to rebuild the city. After this, the country fell into the hands of the Persians.

It was taken by a Persian prince by the name of Cosroes, in 613, and retaken in 627, by Herodius. After that, one of the successors of Mahomet subdued it. Walter Scott's novel of the Crusaders narrates events that occurred after Saladin, who conquered Asia, had recaptured the largest portion of the country from the princes of the Christian faith, in 1188. After that the Mamelukes, and then the Turks of Constantinople, led by the brave Selim, obtained possession of it. It is the only country in the world whose original inhabitants are a distinct people, and who live elsewhere than in their own land. This is certainly one of the puzzles of history. We do not think a history of this country is written; we do not think that a book of Eastern travel to Palestine has been written; there have been attempts without number. The imagination has ability hardly to survey the distance between Lamartine and J. Ross Browne, *the* latest of these Eastern tourists. Lamartine has thrown among his descriptions of the holy places and the venerable relics of the past, that make the country such an interesting subject of curiosity, all that could dazzle the imagination, pique the curiosity, or soften the heart.

Browne, on the contrary, with all his plain Kentucky good sense, has dressed up every thing venerable and august, from the memories of the past, in the every-day, practical, homespun habiliments of the real and the true. The one draws too largely upon the imagination of the past for that fidelity that should mark the historian.

The other is too matter-of-fact and depreciatory, for the exalted conceptions of the Holy Land, that find so ready a lodgment in the minds of his American readers.

As long as the Bible, and the history of the Bible, are our common household words, and form the staple of our religious knowledge, and as long as the human affections are connected with the thrilling circumstances therein related, will Palestine have tourists and historians. The world has been on the brink of a fearful crisis, in the probable conflict growing out of the Russo-Grecian question, connected with the religious privileges of the Greek Christians to visit the holy places.

The pious Emperor of Russia considers himself under "holy obligations," and "in full confidence in the right hand of the Almighty," to "move forward on behalf of the orthodox faith."

It is a circumstance full of food for reflection, that the most memorable places connected with the Christian faith—forever memorable as the scene of the birth, labors, and tragic death of its Author—should be in the hands of its bitterest foes. "Dog of a Christian," was the mad war-cry of the followers of the Crescent.

The Turks are not only the masters of all the seats of primitive Christianity, but of fifteen millions of the followers of Christ. This dominion began over five hundred and fifty years ago. The Sultan Orchan has the honor of being the earliest in this royal game. One hundred and sixty years thereafter, Constantinople was stormed and taken, and was rebaptized and became Mahometan. Constantinople was the first Christian capital of the earth, and was under the rule of Christian Constantine, although there had been fourteen Constantines before him. All this is worthy the study of the historian.

A Rev. gentleman, who resides, we think, at Detroit, writing from Jerusalem, says:—"One of the most affecting sights I have witnessed during my travels, was encountered yesterday P. M. I repaired to the appointed spot to hear the lamentations of the Jews over their desolated temple and scattered nation. The site of the ancient temple is now occupied by the Mosque of Omar. No Christian or Jew is allowed by the Mussulmen to enter its precincts. The nearest approach that the Jews can make to it is to the large and massive stones of the wall which Solomon built, from the top of the narrow valley or ravine called the Tyropean, for the purpose of sustaining and forming the terrace, or arches which were built out from the base of the rock on its four sides, and on which the temple on Mount Moriah was originally constructed. I saw thirty-five Jews standing, or seated near these stones, all of them bowing and restlessly swinging to and fro, while they read their Scriptures in the Hebrew, and some weeping bitterly as they uttered their wail of distress. One man sobbed as if his heart was ready to break, while he stood reading, and trembling with emotion in his whole frame. Women, with white scarfs thrown over their heads, passed mournfully along the wall; some kissed the stones with their lips, others laid their hands on them and then kissed their hands, whilst most sat in a squatted, or Turk-like position, reading parts of their liturgy in Hebrew. I ventured, with a courteous salutation, to look upon the page from which an aged man was quietly reading. He politely pointed his finger to the place. He was reading the 58th, 59th and 60th Psalms. The whole scene was so deeply moving, exhibiting in such a powerful light the sad reality of the Jew's great national sorrow, and caused such a rush of solemn thoughts in my mind, that I was quite overcome by it."

Mr. J. Ross Browne saw nothing like this scene. Quite recently, the English nation excluded a gentleman of education and undoubted integrity of character, from the privilege of representing his fellow-citizens upon the floor of the House of Parliament, upon the ground that he was a Jew. All this is quite singular.

Quite recently, also, Prussia, by no means deficient in good sense or learning, in the First Prussian Chamber, voted the exclusion of Jews from all civil employment!

Of Jerusalem itself, Mr. Browne remarks:—"Perhaps upon the whole face of the globe, there could not be found a spot less holy than Jerusalem. All the fierce, bad passions that drive men to crime, are let loose here, in the struggle for immortality; all the better traits of human nature are buried in fanaticism; all the teachings of wisdom and humanity are violated in a brutal battle for spiritual supremacy." God seems to have specially guarded the holy places from becoming tributary to the weak tendency of human nature—that tendency to worship the near and real, instead of the far and invisible. There seems to attend the worship of all material objects an evil tendency to bad passions, whether that worship descends to graven images, or rises to mosques, sepulchres, or consecrated places. The strife of sects, rivalling each other in the love of the material and the external, is, from natural, and we may indeed say from religious causes, fierce and bitter, and it is unquestionably anti-Christian and revolting. The interest that consecrated places awakens in the heart of man may be very philosophically traced to the same fountain and source whence spring the mythological superstitions of pagan nations. If the Jewish nation has been remarkable for one thing above another, it has been the distrust of the absent and the unreal, or in other words, the preference of the real and present over the distant. Hence both their proneness to idolatry, and their passion for money-getting and money-hoarding. Although the chosen people of heaven, they have ever repaid this choice by the grossest idolatries.

No imagination can conceive a more revolting, yet a more faithful representation of this occult and unmistakable feeling that has characterized this people, from their early superstitions to those of the present day, than the mock scene of gloomy superstition witnessed by Dr. Duffield. The feeling these blind and superstitious bigots here manifested, is as distinctly observable in the Turks with regard to Mahometan sanctuaries, and in other pagan nations, as in the Jews. There is not a little of it even in the more enlightened Christian nations.

The Turks, reigning over a Christian capital of the slain vicegerent of Christ, have the singular satisfaction of contemplating the war of words, and the din of strife, and the flow of Christian, fraternal blood, springing up around the very tomb of Christ, among his pretended disciples of the Copts, the Armenians, the Maronites, and the Greek and Roman Catholics, and of "pointing the moral," and of "adorning the tale," of the difference between the mild doctrines of Jesus, and the conduct of his misguided followers. "Be kindly affectioned one toward another," is the instructive words of their Divine Master.

The picture Mr. Browne gives of the hostility prevailing among the different Christian sects, who gain a precarious subsistence by donations from the charitable, is gloomy in the extreme. This tendency to ill blood, whose manifestation is not less repugnant to the mild spirit of Christianity than congenial to the superstitious reverence for holy places in contradistinction from the *principles* they enunciate and immortalize, is attended with the happy consequence of effecting its own cure, in the final dissolution, which it so materially aids, of all that now remains of the superstructures by which those places are known and held in remembrance. Decay is written on these mongrel structures, half heathen and half Christian, which are still to be seen at Jerusalem. The very detestable rivalry among the many Christian sects, who hate each other with a feeling that a Turk might envy, will ultimately and very naturally result in the speedy, and if the evident tendency of providential circumstances may give us warrant for the expression, in the happy consummation of their entire erasure from human knowledge and human observation forever.

No one sect would bear the labor and expense of repairs, or of improvements, that would enure to the benefit of the others; and these others, in their turn, will not tolerate that supremacy in the one, that would be implied by the right of improving or beautifying. Hate, at all quarters of the globe, is essentially short-sighted, and the "wrath of man" here is evidently working out the unmistakable purposes of Providence. Sectarian hate at Jerusalem would less grieve at the silent but sure decay of the objects of its superstition, and hence mock-reverence, than be willing to give a momentary glow of triumph to a rival but detested opposite sect.

Mr. Browne's description is very graphic. "The Greeks and the Romans, who are the two largest sects," as he says, "and the Copts, Armenians, and Maronites, have each a share in it (the Holy Sepulchre), which they hold by sufferance of the Turkish government; but this union of proprietorship, instead of producing a corresponding unity of feeling, occasions bitter and constant hostility. The Greeks and Romans, who are the two largest sects, and in some sort rivals, hate each other with a ferocity *unparalleled in the annals of religious intolerance.*"

The color of the rose is around all that Lamartine writes of the East. Hear him:

> "Dans mon enfance je me suis représenté souvent ce paradis terrestre, cet Eden que toutes les nations ont dans leurs souvenirs, soit comme un beau rene, soit comme une tradition d' un temps et d' un séjour plus parfait; j'ai suivi Milton dans ses délicieuses descriptions de ce séjour enchanté de nos premiers parents; mais ici, comme en toutes chases, la nature surpasse infiniment l'imagination. Dieu n' a pas donné à l' homme de rêver aussi beau qu' il a fait. J'avais rêvé Eden, je puis dire que je l'ai

vu. D'un de ces plateaux nous montions à un autre; mêmes scènes mêmes encientes d'arbres, même mosaïque de végétation sur le terrain qu'elles entourent; seulement de plateau en plateau, le magnifique horizon s'enlargissait, les plateaux enférieurs s'etendaient comme un damier [draught-board] de toutes couleurs où les haies d' arbustes, rapprochées et groupées par l' optique formaient des bois et des taches sombres sous nos pieds. Nous suivêmes ces plateaux de collines en collines, redescendant de temps en temps dans les vallons qui les séparent: vallons mille fois plus ombrages, plus délicieux encore que les collines; tous voiles par les rideaux des terrasses que les dominent, tous ensevelis dans ces vagues de végétation odorante, mais ayant tous cependant à leur embouchure une étroite échappée de vue (vista) sur la plaine et sur la mer. Comme la plaine desparait à cause de l' élévation de ces vallées elle semblent déboucher immediatement sur la plage [the shore] leurs arbres se detachent en noir sur le bleu des vagues et nous nous amusions quelquefois assis au pied d' un palmier, a voir les voiles des vaisseaux, qui étaient en realité a quartre ou cinq yieues de nous, glisser lentement d' un arbre a l' autre comme s' ils eussent navigué sur un lac, dont ces vallons étaient immediatement le rivage."

Thackeray, the king of them, has written a "Book of Snobs," and although he has several chapters upon "A visit to some country snobs," he has not classified and dissected the snob travellers to the Holy Land. He has a characteristic chapter upon "Continental Snobbery," but none upon Oriental snobbery. How qualified to shine in this department of his chosen snobbery, we may well suppose, from the following exquisite morceau upon the continental snob:—"That brutal, ignorant, peevish bully of an Englishman," says this admirably truthful delineator of the national characteristics of his own countrymen, "is showing himself in every city of Europe. One of the dullest creatures under Heaven, he goes tramping Europe under foot, shouldering his way into galleries and cathedrals, and bustling into palaces with his buckram uniform. At church or theatre, gala or picture-gallery, *his* face never varies. A thousand delightful sights pass before his blood-shot eyes, and don't affect him; countless brilliant scenes of life and manner are shown him, but never move him. He goes to church, and calls the practices there degrading and superstitious, as if *his* altar were the only one that was acceptable. He goes to the picture-galleries, and is more ignorant about art than a French shoe-black. Art, nature, pass, and there is no dot of admiration in his stupid eyes; nothing moves him except when a very great man comes in his way, and then the rigid, proud, self-confident, inflexible British snob, can be as humble as a flunkey, and as supple as a harlequin." Ah! commend us to the Arkansas rogue, after this, for the residue of our lives—Arkansas bowie-knives are much to be preferred. An Arkansas bowie-knife, whatever other things may be said against it, and their name we confess is legion, has at least none of the sickly sentimentalism of polished hate and hypocrisy. It is amusing to hear Mr. Browne discourse of the delights of having his trunks rummaged by police officers.

Nothing in the world can be more annoying to an American traveller (and we should suppose that a Kentuckian would especially relish it but faintly) than the law in connection with passports. He cannot well see the sense of having a gentleman's trunk searched by uneducated ruffians in the shape of grim officials, and his clothes ransacked, and himself put into an ill-smothered rage, in order to find out a seditious letter, or a prohibited book, or a Colt's revolver. He thinks there is no harm in a book, even if it be the Bible, nor in a revolver, if they are quietly permitted to seek their respective positions, under the influence of a healthy, educated, free, moral public opinion. The less legislation in regard to gentlemen's trunks, and private clothing, the American traveller is disposed to think the best.

Be this as it may, but few American tourists pass through the ordeal without much useless waste of American choler.

Mr. Browne says of the King of the Two Sicilies, through whose dominions he travelled on his way to Jerusalem: "I hold myself in readiness to apologize for the remark, when called upon, to his majesty the King of the Two Sicilies, and to declare, if required, that the Neapolitan States are well governed; that the people are well governed; that I never saw so many soldiers and so much governing in all my life. Every man seems to be individually governed; and so careful is his majesty of the faithful administration of the laws, and of the personal security of his subjects, that the ramifications of government extend into every family circle, and wind everybody up, as in a cobweb. The stranger who lands at Palermo and succeeds in getting through the Polezea (*i. e.* the private governing), will respect good government all the rest of his life. I have a very pleasing impression of the officer in attendance there. He opened my knapsack, when he heard me speak English, because he knew I must be an Englishman to address him in that language; he opened my letters one by one, and carefully read them, commencing at the signatures, and ending at the dates; when he saw that I was not Mr. Gladstone, and had no printed documents for private circulation amongst the people of Sicily, he gave me a kindly nod, and let me pass. Now I depend upon that officer, as a man of honor, never to divulge the contents of my letters, especially one that was written in German upon the subject of hocus pocus and the three farthings, and some private memoranda in shorthand."

In several directions this writer traversed Italy, and in September was at Naples. From this place, where he had the pleasure of a Sicilian law-suit, in which the charming duty of paying the fees of his opposing counsel was devolved upon him, he departed for and finally reached Constantinople. His description of this famous seat of Turkish power is quite amusing, and no doubt quite faithful. The most remarkable feature about this city is the quadruped denizens, yclept dogs.

"There is, opposite to the Hotel de Byzant, an open space, inhabited by one of these canine communities, whose operations of domestic and municipal economy afford me constant food for study. Near by me is a Mahometan grave-yard, inhabited by another tribe; and it is my chief employment every afternoon to sit on the portico smoking a chibouck, and watching the movements of my four-legged neighbors. I have formed quite an attachment for the Byzantines, and a bitter prejudice against those sneaking fellows beyond, who skulk behind the tombstones. We of the Byzant region, for I have fought for them, and am now treated as a member of the community, and always received with a general wagging of tails; we Byzantines depend chiefly for our living upon the offal cast out from a range of houses just beyond the boundary. True, this is not strictly our property, but we consider that it ought to be; and so whenever a bone, or a mutilated cat, or a defunct chicken is thrown out, we are started from our sunny corners and daily slumbers by the little curs that we keep to wake us; and, headed by the shaggy old veterans who have fought their way to eminence, we sally forth in a body to seize our prey. Domestic difficulties ensue, hungry drones are the first to run, want more than their share, and scuffles take place which arouse the scouts of the enemy. Now from every tomb-stone there springs a barking foe; the grave-yard re-echoes with the call to arms; big dogs and little dogs rush furiously into battle array, and down they thunder in terrible force upon the fighting Byzantines in an avalanche of dust. One universal yell of rage and defiance rends the welkin; the smoke of battle rises on high, and for a while nothing is seen but a cloud of dust, and nothing heard but the gritting of teeth, and the tug of strife at close quarters. It is a moment of awful suspense. Shall it be victory and chicken, or defeat without chicken? The noble Byzantines, or the skulking Tombers? Now there is a swaying to and fro of the struggling mass—tails begin to appear through the dust; the wounded rush out and skulk off, panting, to places of temporary safety. Individual foes twisted up in mortal strife, tumble out, and roll together on the blood-stained field; cowards hover round in the outer circle, snapping at unguarded legs; and thieves sneak off with portions of the prey, and eat them behind the tombstones while the battle is raging. At last superior numbers prevail against desperate courage. Alas for the Byzantines! the Tombers drive them yelling behind the lines. They rally and re-rally their exhausted forces, but it won't do; they are naturally and morally vanquished—the chicken is gone, and the maimed and the dying skulk off licking their wounds. Flushed with victory, the Tombers follow up to the very door-steps of the Byzant, and defile the sacred temple of the Byzantines. Do you suppose I can sit quietly with a stick in my hand, and witness this crowning insult? Not I—To the rescue! to the rescue! On, Byzantines, on! Away we go! Down go the Tombers before a volley of sticks and stones, and we chase the flying foe into the very secret recesses of the grave-yard. Hurrah for the Byzantines! Victory is ours at last; and for the rest of that day the Tombers are a crest-fallen set. Many a human battle has been decided in the same way, and why shouldn't we feel proud of our victories as well as others?" This truly graphic description, and no less striking deduction by way of moral improvement of the subject, is characteristic of this writer, who afterwards visits the Holy Sepulchre of Christ, and describes it.

Every body knows that Madame Hahn-Hahn has written some very clever novels. She has also been to Constantinople. Let us hear her description of this famous city:—"If none but dogs were the inhabitants of Constantinople, you would find it sufficiently difficult to make your way through a city where heaps of dirt, rubbish, and refuse of every credible and incredible composition, obstruct you at every step, and especially barricade the corners of the streets. But the dogs are not the only dwellers. Take care of yourself—here comes a train of horses, laden on each side with skins of oil—all oil without as well as within. And oh, take care again, for behind are a whole troop of asses, carrying tiles and planks, and all kinds of building material. Now give way to the right for those men with baskets of coals upon their heads, and give way, too, to the left, for those other men, four, six, eight at a time, staggering along with such a load of merchandise, that the pole, thick as your arm, to which it is suspended, bends beneath the weight. Meanwhile don't lose your head with the braying of the asses, the yelling of the dogs, the cries of the porters, and the calls of the sweet-meat and chestnut venders, but follow your dragoman, who, accustomed to all this turmoil, flies before you with winged steps, and either disappears in the crowd, or vanishes round a corner. At length you reach the cemetery. We all know how deeply the Turks respect the graves of the dead, how they visit them, and never permit them to be disturbed, as we do in Europe, after any number of years. In the abstract this is very grand; and when we imagine to ourselves a beautiful cypress grove, with tall white monumental stones, and green grass beneath, it presents a stately and solemn picture. Now contemplate it in the reality. The monuments are overthrown, dilapidated or awry, several roughly paved streets intersect the space, —here sheep are feeding; there donkeys are waiting, here geese are cackling, there cocks are crowing; in one part of the ground linen is drying; in another carpenters are planing; from one corner a troop of camels defile, from another a funeral procession approaches; children are playing, dogs rolling, every kind of the most unconcerned business going on. And what can be a greater profanation of the dead?—But true enough, where they were buried four hundred years ago, there they still lie."—Page 133.

With regard to Constantinople, there is an old prophecy predicting that it would fall into Christian hands in 1854. The propechy states that the Pagans should hold the City of the Cæsars for 400 years, and that then it should return to Christian hands and be subject to Christian authority. Upon the 8th of June next the 400 years will expire. Constantinople is a city that may well furnish food for those minds which speculate upon the philosophy of human history. It was once in the hands of Darius and Xerxes. While passing from the power of the Spartans to the Athenians and back again, it was called Byzantium. The Romans afterwards became its master. It rendered signal service to the Romans, and was repaid in liberal concessions in the way of its own municipal regulations. Under Constantine it became the future capital of the Roman power, and, indeed, the capital of Christendom. It was here that St. Chrysostom preached his first and his last, and his many sermons.

Some of the sermons of this distinguished divine, preached at Constantinople to crowded houses and Christian congregations, have been translated into English, and may serve in conclusion to amuse and instruct the curious reader. In commenting on Ephesians, 4, 31—"Let all bitterness, and wrath, and anger, and clamor, and evil-speaking, be put away from you, with all malice:" he says, "Above all things," addressing his discourse to the sisters of his congregation, "let women hear this, for it treats of their habitual practice. When they are exasperated with their damsels, the whole house re-echoes with the cry; and should the house adjoin the street, every passenger overhears the screaming mistress and the shrieking maid: 'What can be the matter?' bursts from every mouth. Its Mrs. So-and-so, beating her maid.—What! may she not beat her? I say not that, for she ought. But not continually, nor immoderately, nor for household trifles, nor for negligent service merely. But if the maid injures her own soul, then all men will approve, and none condemn the beating. Yes! If she will not improve, correct her," says the preacher, "with a rod and blows. And what am I to do if she paints? Forbid it.

What if she is given to drinking, talking and scandal?—Why, how many ladies are the same!—But many a mistress is so savage as to scourge till one whole day cannot efface the stripes. And when the unhappy woman next appears in the bath, all this cruelty is disclosed. *Now* she is threatened with the dungeon; *now* assailed with ten thousand oaths and maledictions; first she is a witch, and then a street-walker, and next ———, for in her foaming passion, a mistress withholds no word of insult. She stripes her and binds her to the bed-post, summons her children to the spectacle, and bids her dotard spouse act the part of executioner. Ought these things to happen in houses of Christians? Why," he concludes, "are you all blushing?—or rather not all but such as feel it applicable to themselves!"

"Husband and wife," says the Saint, upon another occasion, "should by no means intrude on each other's province in the management of the servants. 'But look back,' cries the wife, 'at neighbor So-and-so; he is a low fellow, and his parants are nobodies. But he is ready for anything, and bustles about the world, and has made his fortune. That is the reason that his wife is covered with gold, and drives white mules to her carriage, and goes where she likes with her neat handmaidens and troop of eunuchs in her train. And you, you coward, you paltroon, you sleepy hunks, you crouch in your cell—oh, unhappy woman that I am.' A wife should not thus speak, yet, if she persists, her husband must not beat her, but smooth her down, considering that she is rather flustered."

These sermons were delivered in the fourth century of the Christian era—about 339 A.D.

Art. IV.—HAYTI AND THE HAYTIENS.

HAYTI, or St. Domingo, was originally a Spanish possession, by the discovery of Columbus. The French obtained a foothold upon *La Tortue*, a small island two leagues to the northward, through the efforts of a few *flibustiers*, or pirates, of that nation. This descent alarmed Spain, and she sent a general to dislodge them. This he did by the free use of the sword and the rope, while the more daring of the buccaneers were absent, but foolishly left without placing a garrison for the protection of the place. It was fortified against the Spanish governors, but became a prey to the governor of the Windward Islands, and was taken and lost three different times afterwards by the Spaniards. In 1639, it remained in the possession of France.

In 1665, Dogeron, a chief of the *flibustiers*, was charged, as governor of *La Tortue*, with the design of capturing Hayti, which was soon accomplished. Prostitutes were shipped from Paris to supply wives to the colonists, many of whom perished by the infection they spread. The Ministers' object was to purge Paris. Dogeron govered the colony well, without troops or laws. So far back as 1754, the products of the island were sold for exportation for 28,832,851 livres. The imports from France were valued at more than two millions sterling.

In 1764, the number of slaves amounted to 206,000. In 1767, the exports were carried to France in 347 vessels.

Hayti is estimated to be nearly 400 miles long, and from 60 to 150 broad. Its area is about 29,000 square miles, or 18,816,000 square acres. Near its centre rises the Cibao Mountains, the highest of which are estimated at nearly 9,000 feet above the sea; lower ranges ramify from these, chiefly from east to west. Highlands arise from the east among extensive plains, partly without trees, and afford good pasturage; the llanos, especially along the southern coast, which extend about eighty miles from the town of St. Domingo to Higuey, being about thirty miles in breadth. The whole of this island is naturally very fertile, particularly this plain, which is watered by the Yuna, down to the Bay of Samana. The low and swampy peninsula of Samana, on the north side of this bay, is joined to the mainland by a low isthmus covered by the sea at spring tides. Along the northern shores, west of Samana, the mountains rise abruptly from the sea to a considerable elevation, with here and there a few slopes along the shore, of lower lands. Behind these the wide and fertile plain, or valley of Santiago, is drained by the river Yague. Along the southern and northern shores of the western part of Hayti, small tracts of level and cultivable land occur only in detached portions; but between the hilly ridges are the valleys, or rather plains of Artibonite and Cul de Sac; the one is irrigated by the Artibonite, the other partly covered by the salt lake, Laguna de Henriquillo, and has no outlet, and by the fresh-water lake, Sanmache. The region between the mountains of Cibao, and the southern coast, comprises high hills and ravines, with but few inhabitants. The soil of the plains and valleys yields the most luxurious vegetation, and the forest trees of the mountains are of gigantic growth. The most valuable trees are mahogany, lignum vitæ, iron wood, and log, or dye woods. Wild fowl, turtle, and excellent fish, are abundant on the coast.*

The coast, in most parts, is rocky, with numerous harbors for coasting vessels, some of which are capacious, with deep water. Port St. Nicholas is about six miles long, and sheltered by mountains of considerable height. The harbor of Cape François, on the north coast of the island, is spacious, has good anchorage, but not thoroughly sheltered. The Bay of Samana affords good anchorage, but it is not frequented, being unhealthy. The harbor of St. Domingo is exposed to southerly winds, but has good holding ground. Port-au-Prince has two good harbors, formed by islets, with excellent anchorages. Gonaives is a safe harbor, with water deep enough for large vessels. The whole island is divided into six *departments*, and thirty-three *arrondissements.*

---

* For many of our facts we are indebted to Macgregor's Progress of America, and where convenient, adopt his language.

Port-au-Prince, the capital of Hayti, is situated in the Bay of Gonaives. The streets are straight, and tolerably wide and commodious, but the houses, generally, are mean. Its trade is chiefly with the United States and Jamaica. Its population about 30,000. The town of Cape Haytien, of some trade, situated on the northern coast, has about 12,000 inhabitants. St. Domingo, formerly the Spanish capital, has about 15,000 inhabitants. Its former trade in jerked beef, cattle, and hides, has nearly vanished.

The number of the inhabitants of the Island of Hayti is variously estimated at from 800,000 to 1,000,000, being chiefly mulattoes or quadroons. The number of whites and pure negroes is small in comparison with the mulattoes, or descendants of Europeans crossed with negroes, and of the descendants of aborigines, Europeans, or negroes.

From the variety of climate, all the tropical plants, as well as the products of the temperate climates, will grow to perfection. In the plains of that part formerly belonging to Spain, the heat is nearly uniform, and varies in proportion to their distance from the mountains. In the plains, the mercury in the thermometer is sometimes at 99 degrees. In the mountains it rarely rises above 72 or 77. There the nights are cool enough to render a warm blanket or covering necessary; and in the higher mountains, even a fire is agreeable in the evenings. Violent heats and heavy rains render St. Domingo humid. Metals soon tarnish, particularly on the sea-shore, which is more unhealthy than the interior parts of the island. The southern part is subject to southern gales, so called, as not being attended with such dreadful consequences as the hurricanes in the Windward Islands. The roads are little more than foot-paths, or tracks, passable only on horseback. The island is in general watered by rivers and brooks; their courses are but short, and few of them navigable to any distance. The river, which in dry weather hardly covers the pebbles on its bed, is changed by a tempestuous rain into a flood; and should the banks give way, the rivers spread in devastation over the plains. Many of the rivers are infested with alligators. Henriquillo and Salt Pond are the only bodies of water which aspire to the name of lakes.

Agriculture in Hayti has recently been so much neglected, and the products so badly prepared, that Haytien coffee is in little repute in the European markets, from the careless and slovenly way in which it is gathered; good and bad berries are mixed up with stones and dirt, to add to the weight. When properly cleaned and separated, the coffee of this island has been considered superior to any in the West Indies. This same negligence has applied of late years to her cotton, cocoa, and logwood.

Owing to the extravagant expenditure of former governments, the value of paper money and base coin in circulation in 1846 amounted to about 8,000,000 of dollars, currency; the value of each dollar of which was depreciated to one-fourth of the Spanish dollar.

Attention, not long since, was directed to a revision of that part of the constitution which forbids white men to hold property in Hayti. The most enlightened of her citizens, says Macgregor, were in favor of abolishing this restriction, as injurious to the interests of the country, and disgraceful to their laws; but it might not be prudent in the government, although they are supposed to be favorable to the naturalization of foreigners, to offend the prejudiced masses, by creating an apprehension of foreign domination.

For thirty years past, neither industry, nor improvement, nor energetic administration, nor the extension of the education of the people, nor any progress in the march of civilization, appears in the agricultural, manufacturing, commercial, moral, social, or political condition of the *quasi* Republic. The climate, the soil, and the pastures yield, almost without culture, sufficient merely to feed a people too indolent to work for comforts or luxuries. The moral aspect of St. Domingo has been decidedly bad. From its discovery by Columbus to the present reign of Solouque, the olive branch has withered under its pestilential breath; and when the atheistical philosophy of revolutionary France added fuel to the volcano of hellish passions which raged in its bosom, the horrors of the island became a narrative which frightened our childhood, and still curdles the blood to read. The triumphant negroes refined upon the tortures of the Inquisition in their treatment of prisoners taken in battle. They tore them with red-hot pincers—sawed them asunder between planks—roasted them by a slow fire—or tore out their eyes with red-hot cork-screws. A negro named Jeannot was, of all their chieftains, the most ferocious. Suspecting the fidelity of a negro under his orders, who was also accused of having saved his master from the knives of the insurgents, this monster ordered that he should be cut in pieces and thrown into the fire. Other acts of cruelty still more revolting, are related of this rebel chief. The plantation of M. Paradole suffered an attack from the insurgents, in which the proprietor himself was made a prisoner. Four of his children, who in the first moments of their panic had fled to places of concealment, came to implore the chief to liberate their father. This filial devotion, which was interpreted as defiance by the demon black, irritated him to fury. He ordered that the four young men should be slain separately before the eyes of their parent, who was then himself put to death, the last victim of this tragedy.* We have often listened to the terrible relations of the massacre of St. Domingo, made to us by Judge Grivot, of New-Orleans, whose father also was shot before his eyes, and who escaped himself the same fate by passing for a medical student, for such they needed. He thrilled us by a tale of a noble French officer, whose life was saved by a frenzied wife, who sacrificed herself to the embraces of the commandant. But enough: the soul revolts from such pictures of *human nature* (?)

Governor Wood, of Ohio, certainly no advocate of slavery, thus speaks of his late visit to Jamaica; and we quote, in order to show that negro nature and civilization are the same everywhere:—

> About ten o'clock, A. M., we came in sight of Jamaica. Mountains appeared, rising several thousand feet. On nearing the land, we took on board a black pilot, ran close in with the shore about thirty miles to Port Royal, and entered the harbor of Kingston, which is on the south side. We were close in with the land from the time we reached Jamaica until we entered the harbor. We saw many plantations, the buildings dilapidated; fields of sugar-cane half worked, and apparently poor; and nothing but that which will grow without the labor of man, appeared luxuriant and flourishing. The island itself is of great fertility, one of the best of the Antilles; but all the large estates upon it are now fast going to ruin. In the harbor were not a dozen ships of all nations; no business was doing, and everything you heard spoken was in the language of complaint. Since the blacks have been liberated they have become indolent, insolent, degraded, and dishonest. They are a rude, beastly set of vagabonds, lying naked about the street, as filthy as the Hottentots, and I believe worse.
>
> On getting to the wharf, the first thing, the blacks of both sexes, in great numbers, perfectly naked, came swimming about the boat, and would dive for small pieces of coin that were thrown them by the passengers. These they would catch in the water or pick from the bottom. They never fail, though the water is twenty feet deep.
>
> The harbor of Kingston is spacious and secure. The city is old and in ruins. On entering it, the stranger is annoyed to death by the black beggars at every step, and you must often show them your pistols or an uplifted cane, to rid yourself of their importunities.
>
> We were here twenty-four hours, took in 400 tons of coal, which was all brought on board by black women in rags, in tubs carried on their heads.
>
> The whites are very civil and courteous. They seem delighted to see Americans, say the island is ruined by legislation and the neglect of the home government, and most of them are desirous of getting away.
>
> I hope the abolition of slavery everywhere will not be attended with the same consequences that it is in Jamaica—to ruin both black and white; but no one visits Jamaica without the most thorough conviction that the liberation of the slave has spoiled him and ruined his master. I have, however, time for no more comments on the subject.

---

* Brown's History of St. Domingo.

But as some evidence of progressing civilization, Faustin has sent to the New-York Crystal Palace specimens of Haytien production, consisting of a quantity of chocolate nuts, the fruit of the *brama cacao;* also of *ricinus communis*, or Palma Christi, commonly called the castor bean, which is extensively cultivated in the United States. He moreover contributes specimens of mahogany, the bark of *lagetta lintearia*, or lace bark tree, rosewood, pepperwood, various kinds of coffee, &c., &c.

The government of the island is historically non-descript. Its most appropriate term might be that of a military despotism. Such has it been always in substance, and Faustin's elevation was owing as much to a *coup d'étât* as that of the third Napoleon. This accounts for the miserable condition of a country, more naturally fertile, perhaps, than our best prairies. The troops of Hayti number near fifty thousand samples of African janizaries, half citizen and half soldier. They follow the standards of their respective regiments, and constitute the garrisons of the different towns in peace, and are concentrated to form the national army in war. They receive from the treasury a coat a year, and a shako or cap, every two years. Shoes, shirts, &c., they pick up when and where they can. In fact, Falstaff's ragged regiment is their model. They are paid from the national fund a sum which varies from half a dollar to one dollar a month, according to the state of the exchequer. They were reviewed on Saturdays and Sundays in Boyer's time, and doubtless Solouque parades his *grande armée* full as often now. The whole matter of government is a farce, worthy only of a village theatre, and tends more to throw royalty into contempt than anything we are at present aware of.

The religion, or pretence for religion, of St. Domingo, is according to the Roman Catholic formula—its forms without its vitality. They intermix the legitimate ritual of the Catholic faith with the mysterious adoration paid to their national fetishes, and the African Obi and the Catholic Priest both come in for a share of their respect and homage; or, rather, of the homage of the females of the island, for the males show an utter contempt for all religious exercises. They are literally a nation sitting in darkness, and worthy of missionary enterprise.

The judiciary, although ostensibly based upon the best modern foundation of jurisprudence—the code Napoleon—is just such as we might expect from heterogeneous ignorance and stupidity. To illustrate it, we will cite a humorous anecdote from Brown. He says:—"An inferior magistrate made a better decision than that of Solomon, if the latter had been executed according to the strictly literal interpretation of the king's order. Some trespass had been committed upon the premises of a neighbor, by the intrusions of a pig. But the case upon its trial was so imperfectly made out, and the pig so ably defended, that the affair was clearly beyond the legal sagacity of the judge, and he could not for the life of him decide as to the human parties in the case. To extricate himself from so great a perplexity, he ordered that the arm of the law should fall *upon the pig*, which was ordered off to prison to expiate the offence it had committed."

---

* History of St. Domingo.

But, said the great Sully, minister to Henry IV., "pasturage and tillage are the two nurses of the State," and we must therefore judge of the tree by its fruit. By this judgment Hayti appears to be in a woeful condition to what it was under French masters. As far back as 1791 it exported double the quantity of coffee it did in 1822, and three hundred times the quantity of sugar! Since then we have the following statistics:

Year.	Exports.	Imports.	Year.	Exports.	Imports.
1836	$,1240,039	$1,828,019	1841	$1,555,557	$1,809,634
1837	1,011,981	1,440,856	1842	899,966	1,266,997
1838	910,255	1,275,762	1843	653,370	898,447
1839	1,122,559	1,377,989	1844	1,128,356	1,441.244
1840	1,027,214	1,252,824	1845	1,405,749	1,386,367
			1852	1,718,903	1,870,672

In some future number we shall trace the character of the Haytien rule to the present time, and the phase it assumes under British policy in the West Indies.

Art. V.—CLARK MILLS AND HIS EQUESTRIAN STATUE.

[We have omitted, from the interesting paper furnished us upon Clark Mills, that portion which treats of his early life as a common plasterer, in Charleston, S. C., of his poverty and trials, and of his first essays in forming plaster busts, under the instruction of a strolling Italian image seller. These busts being noted for their correctness, he was induced to take a shop, &c., &c. The subsequent experience of Mills is given in the article.—*Ed.*]

"MILLS! who took that bust?"

"I did," he modestly replied.

"You did!" said the people. "Why, where did you learn the art?"

"I learned it myself," said Mills.

"Indeed! then you must be encouraged," added a man of means. "You must hire a larger place, and go ahead." The poor artist acted on this suggestion, as well as he was able. He hired a more convenient room in the rear of the Charleston guard-house, and plied the study of his talents.

* * * * * *

At length Dr. T. Y. Simmons, one of the most popular and wealthy of the physicians of Charleston, called upon him, and requested that his bust might be taken. His head and features were of that marked character which caused him to be universally recognized among the Charlestonians. Mills made the trial; and it resulted in triumphant success. All who saw it praised it in the highest terms; and "the good physician" himself, as he ordered it sent to his mansion, turned to the artist and said,

"Mills! lay down the trowel."

And Mills did lay the trowel down. He hired a still better shop, and prepared himself for other and still better works.

It was not long after this period that the great American statesman, John Caldwell Calhoun, called upon Mills. With that intuition which so distinguished the intellect of that extraordinary man, Mr. Calhoun saw at a glance the genius and the future of the struggling American artist. With all a father's affection, with all a strong man's confidence, he took him by the hand. He consented at once to sit for his bust, and cheered on Mills, as he labored with the difficulties of artistic outset, with many words of kindness. It was a moment of intense interest with him. He summoned up every power of his genius, and bent his whole being to the task. It was a complete triumph! The head, with its erect form and bristling locks; the eye, with its deep caverns of thought; the lip, with its compression of firmness; the chin, with its set indication of energy; all was complete, perfect, triumphant.

What an hour for the back-woods wheelwright boy, for the sweating plasterer, the exhibiter of the bear and the dog, and the unknown sprinkler of dusty avenues!

Such are some of the struggles of genius.

The plaster bust of Mr. Calhoun was so successful a work of art that his friends desired it might be preserved in marble. Now came a new and a sterner test of the genius of Mills. He had triumphed with the mould and the plaster, but could he triumph with the chisel and the rock? That was the question of his whole mind. He had never taken the implements of the marble sculptor in his unpractised hands. He knew nothing whatever of the rules of sculpture.

"Can I succeed in this difficult task?" he asked himself. And the answer came from within—I will try.

Procuring the best block of Carolina marble that could be obtained, he sat down before it. There it was, all untooled and unlined—a rough, cold stone from the hills of the Palmetto. Could he carve it? Could he cause it to seem to speak with the lofty lineaments of the man of the South? Could he chisel out from that unhewn rock the frontlets of that iron brow? Could he cut the expression of life from those large and lustrous, and piercing eyes? Could he shape the compressed sternness of those lips and the firm-set dignity of that chin? Could he (in some respects the most difficult work of the sculptor) construct and adjust those wiry locks of hair, so that they should stand up, as was their wont, on the temples and crown of that majestic head?

And the answer came back again from his spirit—"I will try." He tried; and he did it all. Calhoun, in the serene greatness of his intellect, stood before him. So unerring, so perfectly life-like was the bust of marble, that it was viewed with grateful pleasure by the distinguished statesman, and with enthusiastic delight by all his friends. The City Council of Charleston voted a rich gold medal to Mills, and placed this splendid triumph of his genius in the principal public building.

Orders for busts, and works of marble and plaster, now poured in upon our artist. His humble shop became the centre of attraction to many admirers of art.

While busy at his work, one day, his sleeves rolled up to the elbows, and the materials of his toil scattered around him, a gentleman dropped in and accosted him thus:

"Mills! how would you like to go to Italy?"

"Go to Italy! What do you mean?"

"I mean—would you be willing to go abroad, and study the old masters, if you could?"

"Willing? Ah! my dear sir! don't ask such a question of a man situated as I am."

"Why not?"

"Why, because of all things in this world, I should love to go to Italy; but how can I go, when I have no means?"

"If that's all," added the friendly visitor, "make yourself easy. The means will be provided, and you can go to Italy."

The delight of poor Mills at this announcement can be better imagined than described. He turned from his work, and sprang to the side of the gentleman, looking intently in his face for a further explanation.

"Yes, Mills," resumed his gratified friend, "it is all fixed that you are to go abroad. A few of us here in Charleston have made up the necessary sum for sending you, and I have been deputed to inform you of the fact."

The enthusiasm of the artist now began to find vent. Without waiting to put on his coat, he rushed into the street, hailing each acquaintance that he met.

"Have you heard the news? I'm going to Italy; going to study the old masters!"

"Going where?" said one, not exactly comprehending the coatless and bare-headed genius.

"Going to Italy, I tell you! Going to study the old masters of art! Do you hear that? I'm going to the land of sculpture, and painting, and song!"

"Wa'll, go along, then," muttered a stoical passer-by, who doubtless thought of Mills as he had seen him on his water-cart. "Go along, who cares?"

Mills cared; and his true friends cared with him. In a short time he was on his way to New-York, with a view of embarking thence for the classic shades of Rome. Passing through Washington, and tarrying in the capital city for a few days to observe its works of art, (works few indeed for the credit of the country), he was requested by the Hon. W. C. Preston, of S. C., to take for him a bust of the Hon. Daniel Webster, and another of the Hon. John J. Crittenden.

While engaged on Webster's bust, the fame of that of Calhoun having reached Washington, he was waited upon by a committee of the Jackson Monument Association. These gentlemen asked of him a design of an equestrian statue, which he gave them, and which was the basis of that splendid national work of art, unquestionably the first of its kind in the world.

Mr. Mills now abandoned the idea of going abroad. It was believed by the artist and his friends (and is believed so now) that it was due to his genius that he should remain in America. He could not do more if he were to study the ancient works of art, than to perfect himself as their copyist. And wherein does their great excellence consist? In the perfect imitations of nature. Why, then, may not Mills study nature directly himself? And where can he find her in greater perfection than on the American Continent? Where does the sun rise or set in greater majesty or beauty than here? Where are the moon-lit nights more beautiful? Where are the thunder storms more sublime? Where are the lakes broader, the rivers longer, the mountains grander, the prairies wider? Where is there a better race of men and women; and where have there been nobler deeds performed than here?

Why, then, should Clark Mills go to Italy, or Germany, or France, or England, or anywhere else, since the birth-place and home of his genius, since the incentives to his art and the monuments of his skill, are in America?

It is presumed that Mr. Mills may yet go abroad on a professional tour—by no means, however, as a copyist or imitator—to study nature as she appears in her walks of beauty and grandeur through other lands; to catch her lineaments from the summits of her distant mountains, to retrace her lively image as it glows in the lustre of far-off waters; to picture her plumage as she spreads her wings of morning, and over other skies. With these new and varied sketches in the records of his mind, he will return to the grateful land that gave him birth, here to create fresh works of American art, to throw more brilliant halos around American deeds, and to add brighter pages to American history.

Mills revisited Charleston, made honorable arrangements with his kind patrons there, and returned to Washington, where he has remained several years constantly employed in completing his monument to Jackson.

In the prosecution of this great work, everything was new. Obtaining from the government a small patch of ground adjacent to the executive mansion, he put up his little shanty buildings of scantling and unplaned boards, mingled with rough brick walls and coverings of canvas. He dug out his pits and put up his machinery for his foundry and mouldings. Much of the time he worked with his own hands; and being much cramped for room and means, he constructed his furnaces on a principle entirely original with him, so as to make the greatest possible saving of space and fuel. Day and night, for more than four years, he plied himself to his arduous task—the designing, moulding, casting, polishing and erecting a bronze equestrian statue, such as the world had never seen before.

The great idea of that statue, of the rearing war-horse and the mounted hero, never forsook him. Go where he would, occupy himself as he might, it was constantly before him. It was ever present in his scenes of toil, and often visited his dreams in the silent watches of the night. The whole thing was original. He knew nothing practically of the business of casting in iron or brass. He had never seen an equestrian statue in his life. He had never studied anatomy, or physiognomy, or the laws of gravitation. But the grand idea, the controlling purpose, the self-confidence peculiar to real genius, urged him on in the work, and crowned him with success and fame.

He knew and felt that he had done all he attempted to do with his busts of plaster and marble. But could he succeed in bronze? Could he rear his ideal figures of a colossal horse and rider? There were the old, battered brass cannon in that narrow yard. There was his toppling shanty furnace and foundry. There were the moulds, and the plaster for the casts. And there, most of all, in the living mind of the artist, was the living thought.

Yet, again came back the response from the innermost depths of his spirit—"I will try." Quietly, all unnoticed by the busy crowd, he seated himself to his stupendous achievement, and drew his plan. This done, patiently and perseveringly he took up all the details, one by one, and adapted his genius to the work before him. He studied, carefully and closely, the various and wonderful anatomy of men and horses. He formed portions of arms, legs, eyes, ears, locks of hair, hoofs, feet, hands, bones, nerves, and flesh. He created a piece of work one day, that, to the common eye, seemed perfect, but which, not suiting his fine perceptions of art, he destroyed it on the morrow. His little studio was like an artistic Golgotha—a place of skulls, and plaster bones and metallic remains. Heads of men, and tails of horses, fell before his keen sense of the beautiful and true, like grass before the scythe of the mower; or, to use a more feeling simile, like decapitated office-losers, before the guillotine of a party in power.

The rearing position of the horse of Mills is what constitutes one of its chief attractions. To attain this wonderful desideratum was the great study of our artist. He procured a large American gelding, such an one as Jackson might have rode at a review of the American troops prior to the battle of New-Orleans. Leading the animal into his premises, he taught him, by a long series of well-managed experiments, to rear and sustain himself, balanced on his hind legs. The obedient horse became so skilfully trained to his task, that at the approach of his master, and the mere lifting of the finger, he would commence jumping and rearing, until he could throw himself back on his haunches, and remain balanced in the air! In one of those positions Mills sketched him. From that sketch he made his cast. From that cast he moulded his bronze, as the statue appears to-day.

Such is the triumph of genius.

The equestrian statues of Peter and Frederick the Great are both supported, in part, by the weapons of the riders, and the harnesses of the horses, together with other warlike adjuncts. The equestrian statues to Wellington, in Scotland and England, (the latter quite recently put up), are principally supported by their tails. But this statue of Jackson, by Mills, sustains itself. The horse rears, as if in the act of springing from the pedestal—self-supported, self-poised, bearing its gallant rider onward to the charge; or as if sharing in the salute which induces the old hero to lift his cap from his brow.

The inauguration of the statue took place on the eighth of January, 1852, the anniversary of the battle of New-Orleans. The scene is thus described by a gentleman of the South, who has for a long time taken a deep personal interest in the affairs of Mr. Mills:—

"The day was bright and beautiful. In the presence of the President of the United States, the Commander-in-Chief of the Army, both Houses of Congress, the Judges of the Supreme Court, many of the personal friends of the old hero, and twenty thousand people, the artist had the proud satisfaction of seeing this monument of his genius and toil received with applauding admiration.

After the oration of Senator Douglas was concluded, Mr. Mills was introduced to the audience of assembled thousands. As he came forward on the platform he raised his hand to the statue, as a signal for the canvas curtain which covered it to be let fall. The covering fell, and in an instant the horse and his rider were revealed to view! That was the only speech Mills could make in response to the enthusiastic plaudits of his countrymen.

It was the moment of his life. The genius that had inspired him again appeared to his view, holding a crown of laurel over his head. He had listened to the promptings of genius, and followed nature—and his reward was fame. Well does he deserve it." *

But the work which Mills considers destined to be the great work of his life is his contemplated equestrian statue of Washington. To this he is summoning up all the best energies of his genius, enlightened and disciplined by his past experience. It is his constant, his all-engrossing study. He seems to think of nothing else. The idea of the august father of our country, mounted on an American steed, in a manner becoming his character, is his perpetual companion. For the next six or eight years—perhaps longer—the colossal structure will be ever before his mind. Rising up and sitting down, coming in and going out, at home and abroad, Washington is his theme, his study, his labor and enjoyment.

In a recent conversation with the writer of this article, the artist exclaimed, "When my statue of Washington is done, I shall be willing to die!"

It is the design of Mr. Mills to erect this statue on a pedestal at least one hundred feet high. His present idea is to present Washington as he appeared on horseback, in Revolutionary uniform, at the moment of ascending the banks of the Delaware,

---

* Within a short time past, Mr. Mills has made a trip to the Western forests, in company with one or two friends, and returned with a very valuable addition to his studio. He has long cherished the idea, which this expedition has thus enabled him to carry out.

The addition consists of a buffalo, elks, and wild horses, which he intends to group in statuary of marble, iron, or bronze. The size is to be colossal, and the figures will embrace two Indians mounted on wild horses, in native costume, at the exciting moments of the capture of a buffalo.

This is a truly American idea, and is well worthy of the American genius of Mills. It is in this way that the enthusiasm of our people will be aroused. Such a group as he is competent to rear, placed in some one of the large public squares of Washington, would inspire a love of the arts in every American capable of appreciating true native genius.

Mr. Mills has quite recently procured a fine spot of ground, near the junction of the Potomac and Anacostia rivers. The situation is one of the most convenient, and yet romantic and beautiful that the country affords. Here he proposes to lay out his works on a large and permanent scale, and inaugurate his American School of Sculpture and Design.

just previous to the battle of Trenton. The right arm of the Chief is to be extended, as if pointing his surrounding officers and soldiers to the scene of the expected conflict; while his head is slightly turned around, as if, by his looks, to animate those who are nearest his person. The horse is to be in the attitude of motion; but not rearing, not rampant, like the steed of Jackson.

Some conception of the colossal size of the horse, and consequently of the rider, may be formed by the fact that the head of the animal is to be ten feet long. What must the horse be, when only the head is of that length? How towering and majestic, how correspondent with his world-wide fame, must be the erect figure of Washington!

It is proposed by Mr. Mills to place this magnificent structure in the centre of Pennsylvania Avenue, about equi-distant from the President's House and the Halls of Congress. The grounds now occupied by the market-house and other buildings in that spot, are to be laid out for the purpose, with appropriate walks, parks, fountains, and fences.

This great national statue, thus placed, will be seen from both ends of the avenue, from the Smithsonian Institute, the General Post and Patent Offices; and being of sufficient height, it will tower above the surrounding hotels, dwellings, and stores, and be observed at once by persons approaching in any direction to the Capital City. Above the roofs of the people, above the dome of the Houses of Congress, this great American statue will stand on high—a monument alike of the gratitude and love of our country, and of the genius and fame of Clark Mills.*

* There have been but few public criticisms of the statue. Mr. Thackeray, the English author and travelling lecturer, is understood to have made some strictures on the work, during his brief stay in Washington in the winter of 1852–'53. They were replied to in the *Evening Star*, of Washington, and subsequently retracted by Mr. Thackeray, at the close of one of his lectures.

In the June number of *Harper's Monthly Magazine*, for 1853, an anonymous letter-writer, dating from Washington, attempts some foreign witticisms on the color of the bronze, and the poised position of the horse; but they are such signal failures in the way of artistic criticism as to be worthy of but a moment's notice.

Every intelligent observer knows that the yellow hue of the statue is owing to the nature of the metal from which it is cast—the brass cannon taken in American victories. But this critic, in *Harper's*, shows his ignorance of art by comparing the statue, as to its color, with the bronzed vases on each side—overlooking the very significant fact that they are *painted!* This is a fair sample of the futile attempts of would-be critics to injure our American artist and his splendid monument of genius.

Another anonymous writer appears in the *N. Y. Tribune*, (a violent party newspaper,) of July 16, 1853, who meanly attacks the statue, under cover of a review of the Exhibition at the Crystal Palace. In a small building adjacent to the Palace, Mr. Mills has placed a model of his statue, by order of the managers of the exhibition; and this is what the *Tribune* assails.

The tremendous force of this pretended criticism may be realized by the fact that the critic finds these two—and only these—grounds of attack: First, the statue was made by a young American mechanic! Second, the horse stands self-

Art. VI.—SOUTHERN SLAVERY AND ITS ASSAILANTS.

THE KEY TO UNCLE TOM'S CABIN—AGAIN.

FROM Mrs. Stowe bringing in such "advertisements" as she does in evidence, we should not be surprised next to find her adducing some of the extravagance and reprehensible nonsense we have heard Southerners at the North talk, for the purpose of amusing themselves by the horrified looks of their audience. The man who told Mrs. Stowe's brother that his fist had been hardened "knocking down niggers," was assuredly quizzing him; but the note made of this case should admonish all foolish young persons from the South of the danger of jesting about so serious a subject as this has become.

A legal friend, at the request of the writer, procured for her all the law papers referred to in Mrs. Stowe's Key, and pointed out the passages she wished for her purpose. The writer has been glad to find, by the sanction given by a lawyer to the interpretation she has placed on these laws, that, after all, the law was not so misty a subject, but that a little plain common sense would suffice in its investigation.

Having, as we think, exposed the ridiculously unwarranted interpretation put by Mrs. Stowe on the protective acts, and having shown, as we think, that they were not made solely to deceive the world and lull our conscience with the idea that we do intend to treat our slaves humanely, the question arises, if these liberal and enlightened Southerners are the friends of the slave, does Mrs. Stowe misrepresent them in saying they have left the protective acts incomplete, and permitted them to be inefficient; and if so, how is this reconcilable with the good intentions imputed to them? And first, are her premises correct? That the slave code, like most other human enactments, is in some degree imperfect, must be admitted. To say exactly how far it is so, would be assuming to be very wise. Probably we should differ among ourselves as to the benefit to be derived from any proposed additions; and did we agree, would require to test them by experience before we could decide upon them. Pro-

---

poised on his hind legs! This is another fair specimen of the ebullitions of envy and malice our artist has had to encounter. The readers of this *Review* will at once stamp such coin with the marks it deserves.

In conclusion, we are happy to be able to state, that since this article was prepared, Mr. Mills has received an order for an equestrian statue of Jackson, to be erected by the city government in New-Orleans, at an expense of $30,000. He has procured and entered upon extensive grounds in the vicinity of Washington, where he will prosecute to perfection the great works of art he has for years had in contemplation.

bably, however, most enlightened and humane Southerners would wish for laws preventing the separation of families. Almost every notice by a Southerner of Mrs. Stowe's Key, which we have seen, admits this to be a desirable alteration. That the execution of this code is inefficient, cannot be denied, while Mrs. Stowe can adduce the case of such a man as Souther escaping the retribution it positively requires. While her book contains such records as that fairly proven against us, we will not attempt to stultify ourselves and imitate the editors of petty newspapers, who write editorials, in which they denounce Mrs. Stowe's book as a collection of utter falsehoods, and imagine they have written a powerful counterblast assertion. Violent language is not argument, and we should lay down our pen in despair, and give up the cause, were we reduced to use it; for this case is argued before a world who is aware that such substitutes are usually the resources of those who have nothing better to offer. We have been forcibly reminded by the efforts of some of our countrymen to defend themselves against this book, of a saying of Bishop Hobart, "that there is no more certain way of ruining a good cause, than by procuring it a bad defender." That slaves are murdered, and the murderer escapes, is not answered, by the plea that people are murdered in all countries, and the murderer sometimes escapes. A New-Zealander or a Patagonian might make use of just such a plea, to excuse murders in either of their countries. The real question is, do we manifest, and as far as we are able, carry out a disposition to punish such things? Until Mrs. Stowe's day, probably all but very violent abolitionists gave us credit for endeavoring to be lenient towards the negro, in the slavery entailed upon us. Mrs. Stowe says, as a people we sanction and enforce injustice. She professes to make a distinction between us and the system; but while she makes it optional with us to retain slavery, she charges the inhumanity home upon us. Perhaps the world was the more ready to believe her conclusion drawn from her premises fairly, because the amount of inhumanity unveiled was greater than it had imagined, and besides it was not at hand to see the actual working which proves the premises do not warrant that conclusion.

Why is it, then, that this class of Southerners, of whom we have spoken, are silent, when little children are torn from their parents, or men like Souther escape full retribution? The answer to this question lies deep in the nature of things. While it is the just boast of a free government, that by the natural order of things in it, the educated and enlightened are the leaders of the masses, and laws originate with them, still there is a large class of the uneducated and unenlightened, who are capable of being excited and wrought upon so as to change this natural order of things, and completely to nullify the efforts of friends of order and justice. It is frequently some attempted act of violence to the laws of the country, which inflames this mass, and causes them to commit great injustice on the other side; for this multitude, when excited, never take a moderate course, or see both sides of a question at once. As an illustration of our meaning, and a case in many respects similar to the one now enacted at the South on the subject of abolition, we will take the agitation on the subject of Popery, which through a long period inflamed the people of England. It was caused, in a great measure, by the unjust efforts of James II. to establish the Roman Catholic religion; and just as abolitionists, by attempting to overturn the necessary laws of our country, and abolish slavery, have caused great inhumanity to those they so wrongly sought to benefit, so James II. undoubtedly caused great wrong to be done to unfortunate Romanists. Readers of Macaulay and other historians will remember the account given of Titus Oates' plot. Macaulay says, that sensible Protestants believed all along that Oates' statements were falsehoods, but were overawed by the violence of the masses, which led them to suspect of popery any one who attempted to do Romanists justice. Now what had wrought up that multitude? The fact that a similar plot had actually been organized in the days of James I. So great and so violent was the agitation, that many reigns elapsed, after all danger to the liberties of England from the efforts of Romanists had ceased, before this violence was sufficiently quelled, for the friends of justice and liberality to propose the undoubtedly just measure of Roman Catholic emancipation. That unenlightened Southerners are inhumane, or, when unexcited, would confound humanity with abolition, is no more true than that the English populace is unjust, and when unexcited, would confound a simple act of justice to Roman Catholic subjects with an effort to establish the Roman Catholic religion in England. They are to blame who put humanity and justice at a discount, by always painting them in company with such attempts. The people would, in both cases, have listened to the liberal and humane, in the cause of humanity and justice, had there not been such constant efforts to excite their minds.

In a chapter headed "*poor white trash,*" Mrs. Stowe represents slavery as causing a condition among poor whites which forms materials for the worst of mobs. As far as the masses and mobs and mob-law are concerned, apart from the influence of abolitionists, it rests with Mrs. Stowe to prove that our population is more easily aroused than in other countries. The cause of vigilance committees were the violations of law by abolition committees, and their violations of it, or the violations by mobs at the South, can be abundantly matched at the North and everywhere else. To apply Mrs. Stowe's anecdote about the burning of heretics, the question seems to be, not whether law shall be violated, but *who* shall violate it. Mrs. Stowe has written a book filled with abuse of a law which she makes no effort whatever to prove unconstitutional, and the violation of which, therefore, must be a crime. We can overlook this, until almost in the next breath she stands forth as the vehement advocate of law and order. This is a little too absurd. It is too great a presumption in her to talk of the violation of law by Southern mobs. Does she plead the higher law? So might they plead the higher law, which bids them prevent insurrection, and the most fearful of evils to their country. Not that we defend violations of law. No, indeed: when we unfurl the banner of law and order, we mean to be perfectly consistent, and defend no violations of it on any side. The horrors of mobs and mob law are too well known everywhere; and for Mrs. Stowe to attribute them peculiarly to us, is only part of her system to attribute to the influence of slavery every evil which we Southerners inherit in common with all men, from the condition of being human and so imperfect. Who doubts that at the South, slavery has removed from Southern mobs one fearful element, which might have given a far worse type of malignancy than she attributes to them? She speaks of the condition of poor whites as the result of slavery. Undoubtedly there may be evils resulting from the necessity of a large negro population, evils perhaps to poor white people; but emancipation would not remedy them, unless it rid us of the negro. And to attribute the existence of those evils to the slavery which modifies and restrains them, is shamefully unfair. Here, we think, Mrs. Stowe manifests a disposition to play the demagogue, by arousing the poor against the rich. Mrs. Stowe says, slaveholders keep these masses as dogs are kept, to be goaded on by the cry of abolition. If there never had been such a thing as abolition, there had been no such battle-cry to arouse them. She speaks of Senator Hoar's visit to South Carolina, and thinks we must feel ashamed of it. Suppose a Roman Catholic were to reproach an Englishman with the death of the victims of Titus Oates' falsehoods. We imagine he would reply, if there never had been a Gunpowder Plot, there never would have been a pretended Popish Plot; and so we reply, if Massachusetts people never had meddled with our institutions, Mr. Hoar never would have been suspected of wishing to do so. That slaveholders, as a class, especially the enlightened among them, have ever made use of these masses, is false. It would be about as absurd as to say that enlightened and honest Protestants, the precursors of those who waited until the agitation had ceased, before they could be heard in favor of Roman

Catholic disfranchisement from political disabilities, systematically roused the populace to the riots, headed by Lord George Gordon, or to believe in Titus Oates' impostures. The writer has always lived in a slave State, and has never heard one of this class speak otherwise than with regret of the excitements which drown the voice of justice, and it is their feeling all over the Southern country. The time was, before the world had such fearful lessons of rousing these inflammable elements, that those who did so could plead good intentions; but the thing is now so plain from history, that he who runs may read, and they who do so must bear the sin of having wilfully closed their eyes to its teachings. "Judgment is turned away backward, and justice standeth afar off, and he who departeth from evil doth make himself a prey;" and it is Mrs. Stowe who has strangely helped to do it. The influence of her book at the South is evil, and evil only. As far as she is fair in her revelation of injustice, she tells these enlightened slaveholders nothing. They know and would remedy these things already. They do not say much, because they see it is the clamor of talkers which has prevented justice being done ere this. They do sigh for the poor negro, ground between the upper and nether millstone of abolition excitement, and pro-slavery excitement, while the noise prevents their voices from being heard, if they spoke for him.

Mrs. Stowe represents us as trying to stop the discussion of slavery. The question has been disçussed, and we have made up our minds about it; and because our decision does not suit abolitionists, they clamor that we wish to restrain the discussion. The history of the Southern States, since the Revolution, embodies the history of that discussion, and its results; and in it we can directly trace this influence of abolition of which we have spoken. For the colonial enactments of the Slave Code, which are marked by great severity, the British government must be held responsible; for the governor and council, or upper house of the legislature which enacted them, were appointed directly by the king; while the lower house was influenced by him, by his power of appointing tests of eligibility to office in it. The acts punishing a white man who murdered a negro by disfranchisement and fine only, and so designed chiefly for the benefit of masters, passed in South Carolina in 1740, and in North Carolina, in 1774, (Mrs. Stowe's Key). The fifteen-hour work rule in South Carolina, so ridiculed by Mrs. Stowe, was passed 1740, (Key). In Georgia, in Hotchkiss's Statute Book, we find acts punishing by death, for the second offence, a negro who struck a white person; acts preventing free negroes and slaves from renting houses, and prohibiting the meetings of negroes, all dated 1740. When our English brethren are horrified at Mrs. Stowe's account of the Slave Code, they would do well to recollect their own government laid the foundation of it, in greater severity than any of the acts of our legislatures. When Mrs. Stowe calls upon Englishmen to mock at Southern justice, because in Mississippi, in the nineteenth century, it has been "triumphantly made to appear that the slave is a human being," we would remind them, that the fact that it can be at all argued that he is not, arises from the savage spirit of the colonial code, bequeathed to us by the British government, and that it can be triumphantly made to appear that he is, arises from our own more humane enactments modifying that code. And yet, she says she does not confound us with the system. She must think us extremely gullible. About the time of our revolution, by Mrs. Stowe's own showing, great moderation of opinion prevailed at the South, and by permitting the expression of the most extreme opinions, we gave evidence of considering the subject an open one. The opinions of Washington, Jefferson, and Patrick Henry, as quoted by Mrs. Stowe, evidence this. Evidently, some of us thought, in the first flush of our freedom, that all men were fitted for republican government. France and Mexico have since taught us that even some highly civilized white races are not. It was during this period of moderation, that most of the slave States placed the murder of a white man and a negro on the same footing. The State of Georgia, on the adoption of the Constitution in 1798, expressed her view of this subject by putting it on the strong ground of *constitutional enactment*, that "the person who shall wilfully dismember, or deprive of life any slave, shall suffer the same punishment as would be inflicted in case the like offence had been committed on a free white person, and on like proof," &c. That our ancestors did not thoroughly revise the old colonial code, and test the extreme point to which leniency is consistent with slavery, appears to result from their considering emancipation an open question. That we did permit the discussion, appears, on Mrs. Stowe's showing, from the fact that the Methodist denomination, in 1784, and the Presbyterian in 1818, adopted views in their formularies which were the quintessence of abolition; and it not only did not cause separation, but seems to have caused no remonstrance from the Southern branches of those religious bodies. The ordinance of 1787, whose adoption essentially in the Wilmot Proviso nearly dissolved the Union, passed without disturbance. At one time, (*vide* Key,) the States of Kentucky, Virginia, and Maryland, came very near abolishing slavery. Doubtless the perpetual irritation engendered by abolitionists, in enticing fugitive slaves from these border States, helped somewhat to incline them to the decision of the danger of emancipation.

Mrs. Stowe gives an anecdote of the Columbian Orator and Fred. Douglas. The fact that a school-book was once tolerated, containing a dialogue between master and slave, on emancipation, which is made to terminate in the slave's convincing his master, and obtaining freedom from him, proves that we have tolerated discussion. The book was in truth almost the only book of speeches for school-boys, used at the South for a long period, and the writer well remembers, when a child, finding among old books in a closet, a copy of this very Columbian Orator, which bore dog-eared traces of a whole generation of uncles, who had successively conned it. The books now used, by the descendants of those who studied the Columbian Orator, show plainly that a great change has come over public opinion. They contain speeches against abolition. The writer has frequently heard persons in Georgia, not over fifty years of age, say they remembered when at school-boy examinations, speeches against slavery were not uncommon, and it was a frequent subject of discussion in school-boy debating societies. The same persons recollect frequently to have heard people wish there never had been a slave in the country; and also relate, that some popular clergymen of the day never concealed the scruples which prevented their owning slaves. A friend who lives in one of the largest slaveholding counties in Georgia, procured for the writer the following lines, which many years ago were long given as a standing Fourth of July toast, by a slaveholder, owning more than a hundred slaves:

Health to the sick, honor to the brave,
Success to the lover, freedom to the slave.

Sufficient proof, we think, has been given that we have permitted the discussion. Let us now consider the influence our Northern brethren have had on the discussion. In Garland's Life of John Randolph, of Roanoke, vol. 2, page 133, Randolph, who all his life was in favor of emancipation, and did finally emancipate his own slaves, says, "These Yankees have almost reconciled me to slavery. They have produced a revulsion even on my mind; what then must be the effect on those who had no scruples on the subject? I am persuaded, that the cause of humanity to these unfortunates has been put back a century, certainly a generation, by the unprincipled conduct of ambitious men." That the spirit of abolitionism at the North has grown with the growth of our country, is notorious. The first spirit of intermeddling politically with our institutions began in the time of the Missouri Compromise, in 1819, '20, and '21. It mingled with the tariff question in 1830, '31, and '32, making every one fear a dissolution of the Union, until at the time of the admission of Texas and California into the United States, we see a great increase of its violence.

Mrs. Stowe gives us a history of the different actions of the Presbyterian denomination, on the subject of slavery, from which we can gather indications of the relative increase of abolition and pro-slavery sentiments. In 1818, according to Mrs. Stowe, (Key, p. 213,) the Assembly states that the most virtuous portion of the community, in slave States, abhor slavery, and wish its extermination. In 1836 the General Assembly refused to act upon the subject at all, (Key, pp. 209–210.) In 1838, the separation into Old School and New School took place, the Old School being chiefly pro-slavery, while the New School contained but three slaveholding presbyteries. The Old School affirmed, in 1845, that the General Assembly had been organized upon the conceded principle, that slavery was no bar to Christian communion, (Key, p. 211). The New School, composed chiefly of anti-slavery men, in 1839, referred the subject of slavery to lower judicatories, and in 1846 re-affirmed the decision, though the Assembly "states with regret, slavery is still countenanced and continued by many members of our churches," (Key, p. 213). Mrs. Stowe says, (Key, p. 213), "when a boat is imperceptibly going down stream on a gentle, but strong current, we can see its passage only by comparing objects with each other on the shore." She adds, "the testimony of 1818 has the frank, outspoken air of an unanimous document, where there was but one opinion;—that of 1846 has the guarded air of a compromise, ground out between the upper and nether millstones of two contending factions: it is winnowed, guarded, cautious, careful," (Key, p. 213). In 1846, the New School Assembly showed it did not consider pro-slavery doctrines heresy, by inviting the Old School Assembly to celebrate the Lord's Supper with them, (Key, p. 215). In 1850, (Key, p. 215), they avow themselves ready to meet any overtures of re-union to be made to them by the Old School body. This was about the time of the abolition agitation, when California was admitted, and the next time the General Assembly met, they decided not to take any action on the subject of slavery. The strong ground taken by the Methodist Conference at the beginning, in 1784, has already been noticed. In 1840 the General Conference of the Methodist denomination passed the following resolution:—"That it is inexpedient and unjustifiable, for any preacher to admit colored persons to give testimony against white persons, in any of the States where they are denied that privilege by law," (Key, p. 196). Mrs. Stowe thus comments upon all these facts—"The history of the Presbyterian Church, and the history of our United States, have strong points of similarity. In both, at the outset, the strong influence was anti-slavery, even among slaveholders. In both, there was no difference of opinion as to the desirableness of abolishing slavery ultimately—both made a concession, the smallest which could possibly be imagined—both made the concession, in all good faith, contemplating the speedy removal and extinction of the evil, and the history of both is alike. The little point of concession spread and abolished and acquired from year to year, until the United States and the Presbyterian Church stand just where they do. Worse has been the history of the Methodist Church; and the history of the Baptist Church shows the same principle." On page 217, she adds, "*the slave power has the victory.*" All this time the history of the country shows that abolition sentiments have been increasing, and abolitionists have exerted themselves more and more. Every succeeding contest, in our political history, shows their increasing agitation, and the invariable result has been *the victory of pro-slavery principles.* Mrs. Stowe thinks it is because they have not taken sufficiently stringent measures; but does not her own history of the subject show that when they have least agitated the subject they have met with most success? More stringent measures might have wrecked the Union, wrecked the unity of the religious bodies, wrecked peace and government; but certainly no sensible observer of the past could ever draw from it the conclusion that greater agitation would have ever made more probable peaceful emancipation. We can trace the triumph of pro-slavery sentiments, step by step, with the increase of abolition agitation at the North. One might suppose abolitionists could have learned something from the history of the past; and does it not prove that they have invariably lost by the discussion of the subject? Has not their course been utterly suicidal? On page 219, Mrs. Stowe sums up the results of their efforts by saying, "We are losing the battle, we are wrecking the ship." Surely, then, the system they have pursued is not calculated to attain that end. If they really desire what they call peaceful abolition, surely they can see that whereas before the subject was discovered by them, a large proportion of intelligent Southerners thought slavery wrong; since it has been discussed, their minds seem settled entirely in favor of it. If we Southerners desired nothing but the death of abolition, one would suppose we could desire nothing more than the discussion of the thing by abolitionists, for every word they have uttered has been but its death-warrant. What we rue, however, is, that by *their* discussion they rouse a feeling which gives impunity to such men as Souther.

There are but two experiments we Southerners can try—one is that of direct emancipation. That is an experiment which wise men, besides Southerners, considered fraught with danger, (and here we would notice the very judicious tone of some of the English press, to which we imagine Jamaica helped them.) If this experiment were once made, we never could retrace our step, and would incur the danger so feelingly recorded by Mrs. Stowe—

> Of setting all the world on fire,
> To burn just so high, and no higher.

The other experiment is that of endeavoring to correct the abuses of the system, to Christianize and humanize it. This experiment cannot harm any one; there is no danger of taking steps not to be retraced. To this, every liberal, intelligent, humane Southerner would give his support, if the abolitionists would cease the efforts which so stir up the masses, as to tie the hands of those who would act in this way. True, Mrs. Stowe says, that any amelioration of American slavery is inconsistent with the existence of slavery at all; but this she practically contradicts, by attempting to prove that American slavery is the most severe system of slavery that ever existed, and consequently, that much greater leniency is consistent with a state of slavery. Besides, we do not agree with Mrs. Stowe in her notion, that it is impossible to be humane to the slave and still keep him a slave.

The question is, which plan should the experience of those who desire peaceful abolition, lead them to advocate? Experience certainly has proved that their advocacy of emancipation has killed the measure; so, if they are honest in desiring it, they certainly should adopt some other plan.

The other plan is one by which, according to Mrs. Stowe's notion, slavery was destroyed by the early Church. According to Mrs. Stowe's views (which we shall controvert further on), St. Paul took this very plan of refining and humanizing the system in order to destroy it. What if we would adopt this plan, because not having the superior foresight of the deep-seeing Mrs. Stowe, we do not think an attempt to be lenient would destroy the system. So that her end is gained, does it matter to her that it be gained by such means? Suppose we do not take the view she does of St. Paul's plan, in her greater wisdom, she would probably say, we would only be willing to go to a certain point in our leniency. Assuredly it is better to gain *something* by this plan towards the furtherance of her object, than to lose everything by pursuing another course.

When we can prove from the writings of abolitionists themselves the admission that the agitation of the subject by themselves has but rendered far more improbable of attainment that very end they profess to have in view, viz., peaceful emancipation, can we be blamed for thinking they do not desire a *peaceful* termination to slavery, that a fierce hatred to us outweighs their love for the slave, and that they would rather deluge this land in blood than not? We acquit Mrs: Stowe of this. Woman-like, she is evidently so wrought up by the tale of wrongs, that she does not see the real tendency of her efforts. She reminds us of poor Madame Roland, whose fate should certainly teach her sex the danger of their attempting political reformations. She felt deeply the wrongs of others, and like a woman, guided blindly by her feelings, she sought the removal of evils, without reflecting that she but led the way to still greater ones. She contributed to inflame inflammable men to pull down existing institutions, and dreamed the evil would stop there, and France become a free country. The result is, that after innocent blood has been made to flow like water, France has settled back to a despotism.

That a peaceful termination can in a day be put to American slavery, which has been so many long years growing up, seems by no means probable. There is no account of any sudden emancipation of any race from slavery taking place peacefully and healthfully, in the history of the world. No great revolution of any kind ever took place healthfully and suddenly. The right of trial by jury, the freedom of the press, and the other rights which go to make up the sum of that liberty which the English and ourselves alone, of all nations of the earth, enjoy, along with good government, are not the result of sudden changes, but of causes at work through so long a period of years, that their growth in the British Constitution, whence we derived them, can with difficulty be traced. Other nations, who have tried to effect by sudden revolutions what we enjoy, as the benefit of such long struggles, have first destroyed government altogether, and finally riveted the chains of despotism. Experience has taught us that we were wrong in fancying because we could be free that the whole world was fit for it. The millennium has not come yet, and men are not yet perfect, and some of the old feudal methods of putting the weak under the protection of the strong are necessary, which, however they may appear to extravagant notions of freedom like putting the weak in the power of the strong, are yet in reality a protection, and such is American slavery.

Melancholy, indeed, must be the reflections of every lover of the South on the position things have assumed. There seems no probability that these fanatics will ever permit us to be sufficiently quiet to give more full evidence than we have already done, of our wish to be friends to the negro, though necessity compels us to be his master, until some of the changes and chances which usually have brought about such things shall bring a termination to the necessity of slavery, if indeed Providence designs it ever shall be terminated. But when posterity shall be told of such cases as Souther's, and shall ask where were the enlightened, the liberal, the humane, when law was rendered so ineffectual for the protection of the weak; we would put it upon protest for all time, that external agitators had so interfered with our institutions as no people ever were interfered with before; that this class of Southerners had, in this case, no influence over the masses they should have directed. And if the future historian of this country represent them as consenting to murders abhorrent to their very souls, there is another court, where the false decisions of history shall be reversed.

In the mean time, one word as to the lesson to be learned by Southerners from Mrs. Stowe's books. Abolition is dead, stone dead at the South, drowned in the sea; and when its friends seek to drag up its lifeless body, the only success they ever meet with is, when they seize a limb of that humanity which they have tried to tie hand and foot to it to float its heavy remains. Surely, surely, we should try to show the world that humanity and abolition are not the Siamese twins, never seen apart, but are only joined by the efforts of those who would support the bad name of the one, by the good name of the other. Every word Mrs. Stowe says against us is utterly and ridiculously confutable, until she finds in our ranks such men as Souther, and it is only by the aid of such she ever obtains a hearing. Is it not evident that such men are the worst enemies of our institutions; and does not Mrs. Stowe admit that the humane slaveholder is the great upholder of the institution? And though united effort seems impossible, from the agitation these fanatics have created, let every one take to heart, that, individually, by cultivating the wisdom of the serpent, we may occasionally help to wash such stains from the escutcheons of our country. While it is wrong to lose influence which may be used for good, by telling even truth at an inexpedient moment, still, there are times when the strong sense of justice and humanity of the masses will prevail, and bear it; and at least, let no consideration throw our influence on the wrong side. Individuals may often prevent inhumanities, which would be a great argument for our enemies, and they can always set their faces against any useless vexing of this sore subject by interested politicians.

To any reflecting and unprejudiced person, especially at the South, the difficulties in this problem of negro slavery are so great, so insuperable, that it is hard to realize. Mrs. Stowe intends to cut the Gordian knot, and boldly say there is no difficulty at all in emancipation; and so one reads on and on, through page after page of caustic declamation, with curiosity heightened to know what plan she will propose, how solve the riddle which has puzzled so many wise heads, and when she comes to the last chapter, and we find no plan, no hint of a plan except immediate, unconditional emancipation, then flashes on the mind that grand sophistry in which the book is built, that nothing prevents the slave from being a valuable free citizen but Southern cupidity. Into such flimsy materials dissolves this masked battery, from behind which so many shots have been fired. To her penetrating acumen, it boots not that history lends no light in this case, that wide and almost insuperable differences of race, and the influence of external agitators which no slaveholders but ourselves ever had to contend with, have invested American slavery in a mist which we have vainly endeavored to penetrate. To Mrs. Stowe it is as plain as that two and two make four. When the sex get the "*rights*" for which Northern women are battling, we hope Mrs. Stowe will be made secretary of state, for such political talents should not be lost.

The most natural termination which seems to present itself to our mind (if slavery is to be finally extinguished, which we do not say) in the problem of American slavery is, that in time the tendency southward, and already observable in the American negro, may collect the race on the borders of the Gulf of Mexico; and then, as population increases, and the slaves become not only useless, but a burden to us, we will get rid of this surplus population by transporting them across the Gulf to South America, and over the line to Mexico, where, in a population which seems to amalgamate readily with them, they may be free. This seems the natural termination, but these insane clamors at the North may bring about another and speedier fate for the race; and any one who observes the influence they have had on the past in destroying the measure of emancipation which they profess to advocate, will not be surprised that in the future it is decidedly against it. Should these agitators prove that slave property is insecure in a republic, and threaten violently to deprive us of it before it shall have served its day and generation, and become useless, it is not improbable slaveholders may attempt to avert the evils of forcible abolition, by obtaining grants of that fertile land on the Amazon, so peculiarly adapted for our purposes, and removing their slaves thither, where, under a monarchical government, that of Brazil, their rights may be respected, they may perpetuate the institution, or at least remove all prospect of the extinction of slavery to a very remote period.

We have already extended our review so far, that we have space for but a very cursory examination of Mrs. Stowe's view of the Scripture argument. Here Mrs. Stowe again attempts to push us off the vantage-ground we occupy, by requiring us to produce arguments for slavery in the abstract, before we can make out our case satisfactorily. What is necessary for us to prove, is only that it may be permitted to us in a case when to dispense with it would produce incomparably greater evils.

Her arguments on the Old Testament view are four-fold. First, that in Hebrew slavery, the difference between the rank of master and servant was so great, that it could hardly be called slavery. To which we reply, that in that day servants belonged to the same rank with their masters, and moreover, the distinction between all ranks was very indefinite. If Mrs. Stowe can quote, to prove master and servant in some respects almost on a level, that Samuel brought *Saul and his servant into the parlor and made them sit down in the seat of honor*, we also read that (so different were ranks from what they are now-a-days) Saul, after he was acknowledged king, when messengers came to tell him of the incursion of the Ammonites, *came up after the herd out of the field.* Secondly, she says, to prove Hebrew slavery could, in our sense of the word, hardly be called slavery, "Suppose we apply the system of Hebrew slavery, with all its limitations," to our negroes, and it is evident we might as well free them. To which we reply, that if we were to apply the system of Hebrew government altogether to the American people, it is evident it would be no government at all, and yet it was one at that day. Thirdly, she says from the limitations to it given, the system of Hebrew slavery appears to have been a system of gradual emancipation. To which we reply, the books of the Bible, in which we find most of the regulations of Hebrew slavery, (especially that of Leviticus), were written before the entry of the Jews into the promised land, and before slavery was established, and that a system should be devised, for the "gradual limiting, restraining, and extinguishing slavery," which might have been so much more easily done by simple prohibition, does appear very absurd, especially that this system for "gradually limiting, restraining, and extinguishing" slavery, should contain an express permission *not to keep*, *but to buy* slaves. The construction she puts on the military laws to make a parallel case, is utterly forced, and warranted by no commentary we have examined. *Fourthly*, she says, if our evidence be admitted, it proves too much, as the same evidence could be used for the permission of polygamy, blood, revenge, &c. To which we reply, full evidence for their prohibition under the Gospel can' be produced, while there is evidence that a very distinguished member of the Church was not only permitted to become such, and retain slaves, but when one ran away, an apostle sent him back. We feel as indignant as Mrs. Stowe is, that this letter, which should lighten the burden of the Christian slave, by leading his master to regard him as a brother, should be made a warrant for cruelties, but it certainly contains no evidence against slavery, *per se.* Mrs. Stowe takes a great deal of trouble to prove that St. Paul was an abolitionist, but after all her efforts, if she succeeds in making him one at all, at the most, one of so pale and doubtful a hue, that we are convinced, were it not for the sake of having such authority on her side, she would have given him up altogether.

Now, for our part, commend us to the consistency of those gentlemen of the infidel stamp, recorded by Mrs. Stowe, who, rather than fraternize with such a miserable old time-server as Mrs. Stowe represents St. Paul to be, prefer to cut the Gordian knot, and deny his authority altogether. Who doubts Mrs. Stowe would deny the *honorable* name of abolitionist altogether to any clergyman at the present day who sends runaway slaves back to their masters, and never says one word about the sin of retaining them in slavery? If the Rev. Mr. Smylie, or those successors of the apostles, the Bishops of Virginia and Texas, had done such a thing, it would certainly be quite in keeping with their character, even if they did remind the master that his slave had repented of his sins and become his Christian brother. Certainly, we who live in the Southern States should know something about pro-slavery clergymen, and may be entitled to say that we think the Epistle to Philemon just such a one as we could expect from one of them. Mrs. Stowe misrepresents this useful and laborious body of clergymen as preaching to the slaves about their duty to their masters, but quite neglecting to preach up duties to slaves among their masters, because in a volume of sermons preached to negroes, Bishop Meade did not address injunctions to masters. The probability is, the congregations to which they were preached were composed almost wholly of negroes. The writer has occasion to know something of this woeful class of men, having been a member of a church where there were about a hundred colored communicants to eighteen whites. The clergyman who had the cure of those souls did not address masters in his sermons, partly because the masters who attended his ministrations were already alive to their duties, as might be shown by their employing a clergyman almost solely for the benefit of the negroes, and partly for the same reason, that if he had wanted to address parents on neglected duties to children, he would probably have taken an opportunity when the children were not present. He did, however, by private exhortation, everything in his power to awaken every master in his neighborhood who was not alive to his duty to his slaves. We wonder if Mrs. Stowe would not be utterly astonished to see an epistle to Philemon coming from the Rev. Theodore Parker, the Rev. Le Roy Sunderland, or Rev. Albert Barnes. Mrs. Stowe gives us what she supposes was St. Paul's method of abolition, and that pursued by the early church, viz., ransom, and then contradicts the assertion of her belief in its success, by pursuing an entirely different plan. The fact that such was the method pursued by the early church, in a slavery which had none of the difficulties of our slavery, because its subjects, so far from being negroes, seem to have been quite the equals of their masters, is very significant, especially when, in addition to this, Mrs. Stowe records that a certain council of the early church positively forbids enticing slaves from their masters. How often shall it be reiterated that we can argue for emancipation, from no other case of slavery the world has seen to ours, because they are dissimilar? If the best of arguments could be constructed, it could not apply to our case at all, and then the argument she does construct is utterly weak and baseless. We Southerners would be willing for every New-Englander in New-England to be just such abolitionists as St. Paul was, and when they are we shall be delighted to see them at the South, and we shall give them a different exemplification of Southern hospitality from the one Mr. Hoar had. We will even be as willing for Mr. Barnes or Mr. Sunderland to preach on our plantations as for Bishops Meade or Freeman to do so. Let any one who has perused Mrs. Stowe's Key, picture to themselves what sort of a letter she would have written in St. Paul's place, and then read the Epistle to Philemon, and he will find it rather difficult to convince himself that Mrs. Stowe and St. Paul stand on the same platform.

Mrs. Stowe ends her book by what she deems quite a clincher —the application of the golden rule. Now it seems to us that not only Mrs. Stowe, but many other persons, have never considered precisely what the golden rule means.

To illustrate. Since J. J. Astor would probably have wished, if our situations had been reversed, that I would leave him half my fortune, does it follow, on application of the golden rule, that he was bound to give me half his? Manifestly, no. The application which Mrs. Stowe makes of it, and the signification she accepts, make it equally binding on her to ransom slaves as on us to free them; equally binding on slaves not to run away; binding, in fact, on every body to commit any suicidal act the self-love of his neighbor prompts him to wish. So long as Mrs. Stowe accepts this definition, we must hold her inconsistent in spending her money, going to Europe, &c., very inconsistent in writing books to encourage abolition, when, if she were a slaveholder, it is the very last thing she would wish any body to do. She should do as she would wish to be done by me, were she in my place. We accept no such interpretation, and as we know not where to look for a precise definition, we think we shall not be far wrong in adopting the following. In estimating the aid the Bible binds me to bestow on my brother, I am not to be influenced by my own selfish feelings, but rather by what I should *have a right according to Christian fellowship* to expect, were I in his place. Mrs. Stowe would probably say the slave has a right to expect freedom. This is arguing in a circle. It is saying the slave has a right to expect it because the golden rule commands it, and the golden rule commands it because the slave has a right to expect it. The *right* is the very point in dispute between us, and we cannot permit her so to take it for granted. She repeats this sort of arguing in a circle on nearly every page of her book. Buying and selling slaves is wrong, because emancipation is safe; and emancipation is safe, because buying and selling slaves is wrong, &c. As for the freedom of the negro, we do not conceive the golden rule gives him any right to expect it at the expense of involving blacks and whites in common ruin. One word here as to the ladies of England, who seem so carried away by an opportunity for exercising that charming philanthropy which involves no cost and sacrifice on their part. When they manifest a desire to atone for the sins of our common ancestors, by contributing liberally to the emancipation of slaves in the way Mrs. Stowe tells us the early church advanced that object, we may listen with some patience to their meddling advice about our affairs.

As to the artistic merit of Uncle Tom's Cabin, we hold Mrs. Stowe's power to lie chiefly in the delineation of character. The book excites our feelings, but in estimating Mrs. Stowe's power by that, we should remember that there are certain scenes and incidents in themselves so essentially tragic, that any description of them, even by an inferior pen, can powerfully arouse the reader. For example, the pathos in the story of Pocahontas is in the thing itself, and it could hardly be told so as to destroy its powers; while the pathos in Irving's beautiful story of "The Wife" is more in his manner of telling it. As Mrs. Stowe's incidents are not inventions, according to her own account, she is only entitled to the merit of having improved them by the way in which she has wrought them up.

Art. VII.—ITALIAN LETTERS.

[We are permitted to peruse and publish another of the letters from a lady abroad to her friends at home. Our readers will recollect that we published one or two of these letters last year, over the signature of "Gertrude."]

FLORENCE.

YOU wonder, M——, that I write you so little of the churches here. Italy is indeed, as you say, very full of them, and many of them are very beautiful; but because I have failed to mention, you must not think me unmindful or forgetful of these beauties. I wrote you of the holy awe that subdued my very soul, in the sublime solitude of St. Peter's, and still stranger shadows have fallen upon my spirit in some of these old Gothic cathedrals. In their wealth of grotesque carving and floral tracery, I have read, or rather dreamed out many a curious lesson. I have knelt on the marble pavements, when the brilliant glow of the early morning reddened the eastern skies, and streamed in through the chancel windows, falling softly and reverently upon the bowed heads of the worshipping peasants. Their lowly homage was to the *material* presence of Him whose mighty hand had "spread out the heavens as a curtain," and painted them thus gorgeously, to conceal His own abode. I bowed not with them then, yet my lowlier homage, perhaps, went up silently to that Holy One.

[*] "For as I saw God's shadow there,
My spirit poured itself in prayer."

Again, when those worshipping few had all departed, the sultry noon-tide has found me there. The dim light and sacred quiet cooled my fevered brain, and chastened my wayward fancies. And when the evening's mellow blush tinged with radiant hues the stained glass of the windows, bringing out their fairy flowers and delicate leafings with strange distinctness, and the vesper chimes sounded the hour of prayer, I have knelt there still. The magic light came pouring in showers of crimson and gold, there falling upon the pale face of a Madonna, and lighting it up with a rare unearthly beauty, here endowing with life-like earnestness the agonized countenance of a suffering Saviour, and throwing over each distorted lineament a halo that had truly fallen from the skies. Here starting into bold relief a sculptured crowd of mocking forms, who seemed peering from the buttresses, clinging to the airy pinnacles, and swaying amid the delicate enfoliations of the capitals, there flinging into fantastic shadows the fretted roof and interlacing columns, and losing itself in the deep gloom of the heavy arches.

I fear, M——, I cannot make you understand the strange fascination that made the dim shadows of those old cathedralds more beautiful to me than any gay sunshine I had ever known. Though a lowly admirer of the art that gave them being, I had never been its reverent student; but if I could not understand, I could feel its majestic grandeur. I might not know how those slender shafts were made to sustain the weight of the vaulted arches thrown upon them, but I could feel to my very heart the touching lesson I fancied they taught me. The mullioned windows, the groined roof, the glancing spires, the cusps of the panellings, and the elegant fan-like tracery of the architraves and pediments, were all rich in symbolism to my excited

---

[*] Plato calls truth the substance of God, and light His shadow.

imagination. Then, too, they took me back to that olden time, when a man's heart had designed, and a man's hand fashioned, all this intricate beauty. We speak of it as a ruder age, and call the medieval period *dark;* but surely there was hidden in it the light of a pure purpose, and a noble zeal. These curious carvings and delicate elaborations oftentimes seem wasted in obscure corners, where only an eye accustomed to the gloom can discern their propriety; and yet were they wanting, the symmetry would be broken, and a link lost in the beautiful symbolic chain. We write books and poems to pour forth the exuberance of our thoughts, then men chiselled them in stone, and taught the lifeless marble to speak their love and reverence. When we were children together, M——, you loved best the open lawn with the chestnut shadows waving over it; I sought ever the forest, into whose thickest recesses the sunlight seldom penetrated: you sat by the open window, where the warm south wind parted the vines, and played upon your cheek, a little dark corner in the library; where the south wind never came was my favorite retreat. And so I think you would have chosen the gay life we led in Naples last winter, in preference to our present one, which is so very quiet.

You have noticed that I speak of my visitings to the churches in the past tense, simply. Living so much in their quiet and gloom, I caught something of their spirit, and an unwonted sadness stole over me. H——, my most indulgent guardian, deprecating the change, and guessing its cause, has prohibited all such solitary visitings in future. Now my fancy often leads me, from these grand old cathedrals, from which I am shut out, back to the little parish church in the shadow of our ancestral home. The sweet tones of the bell that called us there, the brick walk through the grove, where the gleaming marbles reminded us of our sleeping kindred, the pleasant summer perfume of new-mown grass, and the quaint fashioning of the old building, with its pointed windows first peeping through the mass of ivy that a century's growth had thrown upon it, come before me very vividly.

But I fancy, M——, you are beginning to look wonderingly at the heading of my letter, and imagine that it is misdated, "Florence." Yet you could not have thought that I intended to furnish such a learned young lady as my cousin M—— with a guide-book to my Italian travels. Other tourists have done that by scores, and they will supply you with all you need, of fact, fiction, or history; I only purpose to write you occasionally of the thoughts and feelings that the beauties and genius of the country have suggested and awakened in my mind. Among the many pleasures that I hope the future will bring me, there is none more fondly anticipated than that of being re-united to you. Fate will make me for a year or two longer a wanderer, and then ——! Memory is stamping the scene of my present life indelibly upon my mind,—we will retire then together, after a while, and as the tongue is ever more eloquent than the pen, I shall make you see then, as I cannot do now, Italy as I have seen it.

Dante calls Florence beloved, even when he was "cast forth from her sweet bosom," "The fairest and most renowned daughter of Rome," and poetry and song have long named her "The beautiful." And when I have wandered through her famous galleries, gardens, palaces and libraries, or strolled at evening along the banks of the Arno, I have felt the justness of the epithet. The sarcophagus and statue of Dante, by Stefano Recci, in the Santa Croce, interested me much. The Santa Croce, you remember, is called the Westminster Abbey of Italy, and we have spent many a quiet hour in the sepulchre of Italian genius. The tombs by which we have lingered longest, are those of Michael Angelo, Alfieri, Galileo, Aretino, Machiavelli, and Pietro Micheli. One is brought here into the intellectual presence of such great minds, that the fulness of thought suggested is often overwhelming. Names, that for centuries have been "upon the world's wide tongue," and that we from our childhood have spoken reverently, become as familiar as household words. The great Etruscan bards, Dante, Tasso, and Petrarch, seem identified with their Florence. In all their weary wanderings, in poverty, exile and distress, the memory of their beautiful city was ever present with them, and it is but just that that city should love and venerate their name. The deathless songs they have left us have been dearer to me since I have heard them in their own soft language, and the enthusiasm with which the Florentines cherish them, finds a ready echo in my heart.

My brother came here two months ago, to study in the galleries, and Italy, I think, furnishes no finer studies. H—— is very much engrossed, and his passionate devotion to his art is becoming contagious. I used to be rather skeptical in relation to old paintings, and truly it would require a considerable effort of the imagination to discover beauty or grace in those we are accustomed to see at home. But a canvas touched by the master-hand of genius centuries since, is still glowing with the deathless impress. Titian's beautiful coloring the Italians call "internal light," and it is a light whose lucid splendor time seems to brighten rather than rob of its lustre.

Art. VIII.—IMPROVEMENT OF RIVERS.

AN EXPOSITION OF THE STATE OF THE RIVER APPOMATTOX IN 1824, AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE WORKS FOR ITS IMPROVEMENT—OF THE VIEWS BY WHICH WE HAVE BEEN GUIDED IN DESIGNING THAT IMPROVEMENT—AND A STATEMENT OF THE BENEFICIAL RESULTS WHICH THE WORKS CONSTRUCTED, IN ACCORDANCE WITH THESE VIEWS, HAVE PRODUCED.

THE river Appomattox receives the drainage of a portion of the State of Virginia, of one thousand square miles. Assuming the mean annual height of rain which falls in the above valley, drained by the Appomattox, at 42 inches, we have, by calculation, the quantity which falls annually in the whole valley, $5280 \times 5280 \times 1000 \times 3.5 = 97{,}574{,}400{,}000$ cubic feet; and assuming that $\frac{1}{3}$ of this quantity be discharged by the river, we have the river's mean annual discharge, $\frac{97{,}574{,}400.000}{3} = 32{,}524{,}800{,}000$ cubic feet.

The capacity of the Appomattox above the town, as a river, is of little consequence. Its rise is sometimes sudden and high, but it is of short duration, and the surface soon sinks down again to low-water level, so that navigation cannot follow the course of the river.

The tidal compartment of the river, in which the tide ebbs and flows, extends to the falls, at the upper end of the town, a distance of about eleven and a half miles from James River. This compartment is only navigable when its waters are deepened by the influx of the tide, and is consequently closed to all vessels during the absence of tidal influence. It is formed and kept open by the scouring action of the backwater.

Previous to the commencement of the works in 1824, for the improvement of the river, the navigation and the flow of its waters were so much obstructed by bars or sand-banks, that only vessels drawing about three feet of water could be made use of for the trade of Petersburg. The most injurious bar, called the "Stop-bar," about 2 miles below Petersburg, had a depth of about 6 inches at low water, in dry seasons, and the flow was 3 feet, making a total depth of 3 feet 6 inches below zero of the water-meter, at which it was fixed in 1824, at the wharf of Petersburg, assumed as the datum line of high water at a spring tide. At low water, the main current passed through a narrow winding channel across the bar, from the right to the left shore, leaving the extensive sand-bank nearly dry; and even then, the channel would not admit, at very low water in the river proper, the passage of a small canoe.

Vessels were generally detained here by grounding, and had to be lightened. The breadth of the river was here about 620 feet, surface of water at zero.

On the Robertson's bar, at the head of Archer's Island, about 2½ miles below Petersburg, the depth of water was about 4 feet below zero of the water-meter; and on the Farmer's bar, at the head of Gilliam's Island, about 4¼ miles below Petersburg, there was about the same depth.

These bars dammed up the surface of the river at low water, and prevented the free admission of the tide, and free discharge of the backwater.

The freshets to which the river is subjected, are capable of removing all bars, equalizing the depth, and keeping the bed clear from any deposit, if the energy of the current were properly directed. Besides the bars, the flow of the water was retarded by the circuitous line of channel, the irregular expansion of the water, the division of the river into several branches by islands, and the amount of fall of the bed or surface of the river at low water. From the head of Gilliam's Island to the Point of Rocks, in a distance of about 3¾ miles, the river is allowed to vary in its course through a wide expanse, having several channels, though neither has the depth which would be found in a single and regular one.

The sedimentary matter which the river brings along from above, in time of a freshet, into the tidal compartment below Petersburg, consists of fine sand and mud. The dams across the stream above the town, for canal and mill purposes, retain the coarser materials. This is also, in some measure, proved by the depth of water from 8 to 10 feet in front of the city wharves.

The obstructions to the free flow of the tide and the backwater, all lie about the Point of Rocks, and extend about 8 miles from the city of Petersburg.

Assuming that the mean annual discharge of the river Appomattox, of 32,524,800,000 cubic feet, be equally divided throughout the whole year, we have the daily discharge, $\frac{32{,}524{,}800{,}000}{365} = 89{,}100{,}000$ cubic feet, or 1031.25 cubic feet per second. Let this quantity of 1031.25 cubic feet per second be conveyed through an open canal of 8 miles, or 42,240 feet in length and 3 feet fall, we obtain the dimensions of the transverse section of the canal from the formula $\sqrt{\left(\frac{1031.25 \times 42{,}240}{2 \times 96^2 \times 3}\right)}$ for open streams which are flowing with a uniform motion; the depth, 15.2 feet; the breadth at the surface, 50.7 feet; the breadth at the bottom, 10.1 feet; the area of the transverse section, 462.08 square feet. Supposed that the base of the side-slope be four-thirds of the height or depth.

Let the discharge be 5,000 cubic feet per second, in time of a freshet, and the fall 3 feet in the length of 8 miles, we obtain the depth, 28.6 feet; the breadth at the surface, 95.3 feet; the breadth at the bottom, 19.1 feet; the area of the transverse section, 1635.9 square feet.

Let the depth of the river be 12 feet; the breadth at the bottom 60 feet, and at the surface 120 feet, and the fall 3 feet in the length of 8 miles, we have from the formula, $96\sqrt{\left(\frac{90 \times 12 \times 3}{90 + 2 \times 12 \times 42{,}240}\right)}$, the mean velocity 2.5 feet per second, the discharge 2,700 cubic feet per second.

We can increase the velocity of the water in a river without increasing its fall, when, by a regular formation of its transverse section, we discover the perimeter or the sum of the bottom and the two sides touched by the water. Let the breadth of the transverse section of the river be 200 feet at the surface, and 100 feet at the bottom; the depth 6 feet and the fall 3 feet in the length of 8 miles, we have the mean velocity 1.9 feet per second, the discharge 1,710 cubic feet per second. But taking the breadth of the transverse section at the surface 93 feet, and at the bottom 57 feet, the depth 12 feet, and the fall 3 feet in the length of 8 miles, we have the mean velocity 2.4 feet per second, the discharge 2,160 cubic feet per second. The difference in the discharge, 2,160—1,710 = 450 cubic feet per second in favor of the decreased perimeter.

Let the discharge be 2,160 cubic feet per second, and the fall 3 feet in the length of 8 miles, we obtain for the best form of the transverse section, according to the above formula, the depth 20.4 feet, the breadth at the surface 68.0, the breadth at the bottom 13.6, the area of the transverse section 832.3 square feet, and the mean velocity about 2.6 feet per second. In order to obtain, therefore, the greatest velocity in the river's bed, we should give to the transverse section that form in which the perimeter for a given area is a minimum, or the area for a given perimeter a maximum.

The bed of a river, of a given width, has its most perfect form, when the surface of the stream and the bottom of its longitudinal section form parallel lines, and this is the greatest extent to which it can be improved.

We have seen it stated, that on account of the low islands and the lateral channels giving room for the water to spread, the rise, in time of a freshet, is but little felt at the Point of Rocks or Broadway. If this were true, it would be equally true that the expanse above the Point of Rocks would admit a greater quantity of tidal water, and that the formation of a single regular channel would prove injurious to the river above the islands.

This is, however, at variance with fact. The very reverse would be experienced, because the velocity of the water is diminished by the expanse of its bed. A single and regular channel will admit more tidal water, promote the discharge of the backwater, and with it a reduction in the height of the water, in time of a freshet, at Petersburg.

The rise of the water in the river at Petersburg will cause an augmentation of its velocity and transverse sectional area, as well as an increase in declivity of the surface, and discharge of the water.

A greater declivity, or fall of the surface of the river, requires not so great a transverse section, as a smaller one, for the discharge of the same quantity of water.

Let 5,000 cubic feet per second be discharged, in time of a freshet, through an open canal of 6 feet fall, in the length of 8 miles, we obtain, from the above formula, the depth, 24.9 feet; the breadth at the surface, 83.0 feet; the breadth at the bottom, 16.6 feet; the area of the transverse section, 1,240 square feet.

According to the foregoing calculations, the required area of the transverse section to discharge 5,000 cubic feet per second should be for a fall of 3 feet in 8 miles 1635.9 square feet; for a fall of 6 feet in 8 miles, 1240.0 square feet. Difference in favor of the greater fall, 395.9 square feet.

The above calculations show in how far we may decrease or increase the discharge of water, or regulate the depth of a river by the form of the transverse section, or regulate the breadth of the river according to the wants of the navigation. The river requires not only depth, but likewise a sufficient breadth for navigation. If the breadth of the river were to be contracted, its depth would be increased; but then the space for the vessels would be lessened, so that in augmenting the depth, care must be taken that it may not prove injurious to navigation.

By a judicious contraction we facilitate navigation, and promote the free discharge of the backwater, and consequent full egress of the tide.

The above calculations show also the great importance of hydrometrical measurement and observations, before forming a design of improvement.

The upland water is not sufficient to afford ample breadth and depth for the purpose of navigation, and an improvement of the available depth will therefore mainly depend on the proper regulation of the ingress and egress of the tide.

In order to accelerate and increase the tide which flows through the channel up to Petersburg, it is requisite to lower the bed of the river, and remove all abutments to its free flow.

The fall of the bed or of the surface of the river at low water should be determined before forming any design of improvement.

The river having been allowed to widen its channel, and to pursue a winding course, it will require a systematic regulation of the course of the river by proper works to create and maintain a regular slope of the bottom of the bed, or a regular depth of water.

The velocity of a river can be augmented by the lateral contraction of its cross section, and it is the plan generally employed to deepen its bed. It is equally proper, when the object is to accelerate the discharge of the backwater. Lowering the bed of the river will also increase the flow of the tide, by reducing the height of the surface of the river at low water, and thereby producing a greater vertical rise of the tide.

The fall of the surface of the river at low water exhibits a great irregularity along its course; it is greater on the shoals than in places where the river is deep, so that instead of presenting a longitudinal section of a regular plane, we find a succession of inclined planes.

By contracting the width of the river and straightening its course, we shall produce a greater scouring power to operate on the bottom of the bed, and equalize the depths. But the scouring action upon the bottom of the bed cannot be properly effected, without protecting the sides by such works as will produce a regular flow and depth of water in the channel.

The scouring action of the river is constantly directed to establish everywhere a certain depth, and to this it will remove by degrees the sand and mud which come from above; or if a constant quantity of water were flowing down the river, there would be no tendency to alterations, as to depth, or tendency to deposit, because the scouring power being constant, all the sand which was brought down into the bed would be transported seaward.

The bottom of the bed of the river Appomattox consists of a material capable of removal by the action of a stronger current, except the fixed rocks in the Cut, at Blandford, near Petersburg; but in order to produce the greatest scouring action, it will be necessary to raise the works above the highest stage of the river.

Bends in a river have a material influence on the velocity of the current. To cut a new channel in a straight line with the course of the river, above and below, lessens the number of obstructions to the motion of the water, and increases the relative fall, and consequently augments the velocity of the stream in a double ratio.

By lengthening the course of the river we lessen the velocity, and with it the scouring action of the current.

To a straight reach of a river the scouring power operates on the bottom of the bed, while in the opposite case it acts more on the sides.

The obstructions presented by an abrupt bend of a river to the propagation of the tide, cause the heaping up or swelling of the water at the lower end, and, therefore, the tide will commence to flow later above the bend, than if it was not retarded in its winding upward passage.

At the lower end of a bend, where the tide meets the contracted downward current, eddies are formed, and here is the greatest depth, and the closest to the shore.

Islands, too, like bends or bars, by augmenting the width of the river, prevent a rapid discharge of the water, upon which the depth or vertical rise of the river mainly depends.

It is advantageous to shut up all secondary channels, so as to confine the whole of the water to the navigable channel, and, if required, to enlarge the one which is in a direct line with the course of the river, so as to assimilate its cross-sectional area to that of the river proper. If the breadth of a stream is decreased, its depth must be increased, in order to equalize the sectional area which the river is capable of keeping open.

In order to obtain all the requisite data, as to the design and execution of the works for the improvement of the river, we must have a correct survey of the river, with longitudinal and transverse sections, as well as observations of the rise and fall of the water, the fall of the surface of the river at low water, the velocity of the water, the quantity discharged in a certain time at a certain height on the water-meter, and the nature of the materials of which the bottom and sides of the bed are composed.

The plan of the river should represent a complete history of the whole improvement and its effects. It should not only accurately show by colored lines the extent of the highest inundation throughout its whole course, but also the extent of the tide at high and low water, and show the places where the transverse sections of the stream were taken, as well as the line of navigation or fair-way at the time of the survey.

Water-meters should be fixed in the river before the commencement of the soundings, in order to be able to reduce the depths to the zero or datum line of the water. The zero from which the meter is graduated in feet and inches may be assumed as high water of a spring tide. The mere statement that the depths refer to ordinary high water does not enable us to form a correct notion of the depths; it is too indefinite.

By comparing the sections and observations made during several years, and always in reference to the zero or datum line of the water meter, we become acquainted with the changes that have been effected, and learn whether the works have fully answered the intended end.

When possessed of all requisite data, we can ascertain to what extent the bed of the river can be deepened, contracted, or widened, what secondary channels must be shut up, or new cuts made to avoid bends, or to shorten the course of the river; in short, to give the bed such a form and direction, that the flow of the tide and discharge of the backwater may meet with the least obstruction.

We should also endeavor, in the course of our operations, to give to the bed and bends that form and direction which is most convenient for navigation.

Fitters or spurs may, in some cases, be constructed to great advantage, if of proper form and judiciously located; but on the other hand, they may prove great obstacles to the flow of the currents, and form irregular motion of the water or eddies, and become rather detrimental than beneficial to navigation, by forming a continuation of deep hollows and shoals at their extreme points, without deepening the channel, for which purpose they were executed.

By the execution of low jetties, fences, as well as by planting with willows the low shelving banks along the course of the river, we reduce the breadth of the transverse section of the stream, and decrease in time of a freshet the velocity of the water which passes over them, which will cause the deposit between these works of the heavy materials which the river brings from above, and form by degrees new and higher bends, and thus produce gradually a more regular bed and a greater depth of water.

After the river is confined in a permanent direction by proper works, whereby the velocity of the current has been increased, we may perhaps beneficially employ the operation of harrowing the bottom, so as to loosen the materials of which it is composed, and enable the stream to float off the smaller particles, and thus expedite the deepening of the bed. But as the shoals consist of a material capable of removal by the action of a stronger current, dredging must be suspended, by the construction of works to guide the river through a regular straight channel, and thus increase the velocity of the water and its consequent action upon the bottom of the bed.

The dredging operations may, however, be considered as an auxiliary in the improvement of the river, if simultaneously carried on with the construction of the necessary works for the formation of a straight and more regular channel.

Contracting the breadth of the stream, and carrying it in a judicious line of direction, will certainly produce a greater scouring power, and thus operate much more powerfully on the deepening of its bed, than the expensive dredging vessels.

In stagnant water, where there is no cause at all for the accumulation of sand-bars, it is evident that dredging will bring about a lasting result; but in rivers which maintain at some places a little and at others a great depth, we can only establish a regular slope of the bottom of the bed, by the use of the force of the current in removing all those obstacles which hitherto prevented the creation of a regular depth. All that we have to do, is to convey the river in such a manner, as to form its bed of the desired depth, and in no other way can we expect a favorable result.

In rivers, however, where the bottom is composed of such materials as are too heavy to be removed by the increased current, dredging will certainly be useful. But in the case of the shoals in the tidal compartment of the river Appomattox, which are composed of fine loose sand, so easily removed by the action of a stronger current, produced by new bends of proper height and direction, it is contended that the river can be improved, or that a greater navigable depth can be produced, without being obliged to have recourse to the constant use of expensive dredging operations.

The greatest scouring effect seaward takes place as soon as the volume and velocity of the flood and river-water are the greatest. This is, however, not the case directly after high water, but about half ebb, when the velocity has so much increased that it produces with the remaining quantity of water a maximum effect. The velocity of the water in a river decreases from the fair-way or middle of the stream towards the sides, and from the surface towards the bottom. The mean velocity of a transverse section of a stream is that with which, if all the particles were to move, the discharge would be the same with the actual discharge.

The statement, that the velocity of the current at flood and ebb at Broadway is one knot, and at Covington's half a knot per hour, shows clearly that we can obtain from such observations very little knowledge of the real state of the river. The discharge of a stream is ascertained by multiplying its mean velocity by the area of its transverse section.

The principles which we adopted for the removal of the obstructions in the bed of the river Appomattox were the production of an increased velocity, effected by the formation of a proper transverse section of the bed of the river, and by conveying the river in a judicious line of direction, so that ebb and flood would follow as near as possible the same mid-channel. For the improvement we had, however, to select a breadth of the river, whereby the discharge of water could be performed without doing any injury to the natural bends. This breadth could only be met with at such places where the current maintained the desired depth without corroded banks.

In places where the current was near the shore, the depth great and a strong current, we constructed substantial facine-works, of sufficient crown and slope; but where there was not much current and the banks low and shelving, the jetties or fences were made of rows of stakes and wattling to diminish the velocity of the current, and permit a considerable portion of the sand moved by the freshets to deposit itself between these jetties. The jetties were placed at right angles to the direction of the current, and at proper distances, and every attention was paid to produce a uniform deposit between them, and prevent any eddies at their extreme points.

The want of sufficient means made it necessary to accomplish by degrees what could have been effected in a shorter time by works extending above the highest stage of the river. By confining the waters of the whole river, in time of a freshet, between high banks, it can be rendered more effective in deepening and keeping open the channel.

The secondary streams were shut up by dams, constructed of facines, stakes, and gravel, in the most substantial manner, and thus the water forced through the cuts at Blandford and Archer's Island.

The cuts or new river channels were formed by digging at first a trench of about 10 feet wide and 4 feet deep, at high tide, on the line of the contemplated direction, and the excavated soil thrown on both sides of the trench. As soon as this was finished the water was turned into the same, and then left to the scouring power of the current to form a sufficient space for the passage of the waters of the whole river.

In this manner all the materials from the cuts were washed down the river, without doing the least injury to the navigable depth below, all following the current towards the sea, and depositing at such places where the velocity of the water permitted.

It is certainly strange to find, in 1853, an attempt made to remove the loose sand and mud or deepen the bed of the river by the constant use of dredging vessels, without removing the causes which produce the obstructions in the bed of the river.

The rocks in the bottom of the cut or new river channel at Blandford were blasted and removed piecemeal, to the contemplated depth of seven feet, without much trouble and expense; a common earth dam was sufficient for the necessary drainage, and they may be removed to a greater depth with a comparatively small expenditure. At any rate, the proper direction of the river should not be sacrificed for the sake of a few hundred dollars. The cost of deepening or opening the old bed of the river at Blandford by dredging operations, which could so easily be done, in a very short time, by the action of a well-directed current, will probably exceed that of the removal of the rocks. To deepen the old tortuous bed, and keep it open by mere dredging operations, is a pure and gratuitous waste of labor and money.

The obstructions in the old bed, at Blandford, are the tortuous and lengthened line of channel, the decreased relative fall, and the consequent diminished velocity of the water. By the straight cut are not only removed all the above obstructions to the motion of the water, but it has greatly facilitated navigation, by a straighter direction, and a greater depth, and at the same time, has reduced the height of water at the wharves of Petersburg, in time of a freshet, and thus has proved a decided improvement in the river. The removal of the rocks to the contemplated depth may, therefore, confidently be expected to be followed by highly beneficial effects, not only in the upper, but also in the part of the river lower down. These rocks once removed to the desired depth, the action of the current will readily effect what is required, without the use of expensive dredging vessels.

Archer's Island divided the river into two separate tortuous branches, and it was therefore found advantageous to shut up these two channels by dams, or embankments, and to form a new channel across the island, in a proper direction with the course of the river above and below.

The channel which passed from the main channel near the Farmer's bar, south of Gilliam's Island, has been shut up by a dam, so as to confine the whole of the waters of the river to the main channel across the Farmer's bar.

The mouths of all lateral streams or tributaries of the Appomattox were, as much as possible, carried in the direction of the main stream of the river.

Tidal observations were made during the progress of the improvement, at the different stations between Petersburg and the Brick-house, which showed the favorable change which had been effected in the propagation of the tide, and that the executed works had answered the intended end.

Our main object was, considering the disposable means, to equalize the bottom of the bed, with such constructed works as would not disturb the flow of the water, and create a depth of seven feet below zero, or datum of the water-meter fixed at the wharf at Petersburg, which was the extent of the contemplated improvement of the river Appomattox.

The progress of the improvement of the river was not only retarded by the detached low works, but was mainly owing to the circumstance that the river could not, for want of funds, be conveyed from the Farmer's bar, at the head of Gilliam's Island, to the Point of Rocks, in a regular channel of proper breadth and direction.

It was contemplated to carry the river from the Farmer's bar, opposite Hare's, in an easy curved bed, to opposite Gilliam's, into the southern channel, and to shut up by dams all secondary channels, so as to force all the water of the river into this new bed, in order to produce a sufficient scouring power to form a proper transverse sectional area for the passage of the currents. The mass of water, thus confined in a permanent direction by proper works, would be able to maintain a greater depth at low water than previously.

The waters of the Swift Creek to be conveyed through the northern channel in a single confined bed to the Point of Rocks, where it unites with the southern channel, and from here flows united in a single bed to James River.

If the above-mentioned channel had been opened, as traced in 1824, there remains no doubt in our mind, that all that is requisite would have been effected to secure a greater and more regular depth of water from Petersburg to the Point of Rocks.

Had even the lower Appomattox Company continued to act upon the views as contained in the report of 1824, to the directors of the company, they would undoubtedly have effected in the reach of the river above the Brick-house, without much labor and money, a greater vertical rise in the tide, and consequent greater depth, by the reduction of the surface of the river at low water.

The arrivals of vessels, drawing six to seven feet water, at the wharves of Petersburg, instead, as formerly, of three feet, are indisputable proof of the great improvement which has taken place in the river. The correctness of the views as contained in the above report, is also apparent from the fact that a more regular depth has been established along the course of the river in the mid-channel or fair-way. In no instance has it happened that deposits have been made in the bed of the river, in time of a freshet, where the river was properly confined by banks.

It would rather be a strange attempt to ascertain the amount of materials deposited in a single freshet, were the river confined within a proper bed by permanent banks, in a judicious direction.

Much benefit has been afforded to the navigation, in producing an increased body of water by an actual deepening of the channel, and removal of most of the obstructions from it, thus giving a straight and fair passage for the tide, which begins now to flow at Petersburg sooner than before; and thus the advantages of an increased depth, due to the presence of the tide, are proportionally increased throughout the whole tidal compartment.

The effects of the different works cannot be precisely stated, because there were lost, by fire, in November, 1847, all the papers relating to the improvement of the river; but from the subjoined extract of a report, dated Petersburg, Va., September, 1849, it is evident that the depth of water has at least been increased from three to four feet, although the works have been neglected.

This gain of from three to four feet available depth in the navigation has been of the greatest importance. No moving power is so cheap and advantageous as that produced by a tidal navigation, which is at one and the same time the road that carries and the locomotive power.

Yet the formation of a canal of twelve feet navigable depth, from Petersburg to the Point of Rocks, or ship navigation, has once become a favorite scheme with the citizens of the town. We must not wonder at the assertion, that goods can be transported cheaper on the railroad, from City Point to Petersburg, than on the river Appomattox.

The following is an extract from the report of the committee to examine the state of the river Appomattox, from the wharf at Petersburg to Straton Rocks, or ship navigation, given in a letter from Jabez Smith, Esq., chairman of said committee, dated Petersburg, September 21, 1849:—

"From the Long Wharf at Petersburg, to Blandford Cut, we found 8½ to 9 feet of water; at the mouth of the cut about 7 feet 8 inches; over the rocks in the cut, near the mouth, 8 feet water, increasing to 8½, 9, and 10 feet, and at the lower end of the cut 13 feet; found some rock near the middle of the cut washed naked at 10 to 11 feet; about 150 yards below the lower end of the Blandford Cut, there is only 6 feet 6 inches water at common tide. From here the depth increases to 7½ feet and 8 feet at the Spring, and 8½ feet at Bates' Old Wharf; and from there down to the Step-bar 8½ feet, and the same where was once the Step-bar. From here down we found generally, fully 8½ feet water, to the mouth of Archer's Island Cut, and through the cut 8½ feet, and at the lower end 9 feet, and occasionally 10 feet; and from the cut 8½ to 9 feet water to the Farmer's bar, which has also 8½ feet water. The works we find wanting repairs."

From the above report it appears also that the works, and in fact the whole river, as far as relates to the improvements, has been entirely neglected, since the operations were discontinued. This is the more to be regretted, as several of the works were executed in a manner to require constant attention and care to produce the desired effect, with the least expense; for instance, the fences which were erected to diminish the velocity, and permit deposit between them, in order to form new and higher banks. The continuation of planting the low and shelving sand-banks along the course of the river with willows, would also have produced a very beneficial effect in raising by deposit these lands above common high water, and thus have confined the waters more and more to the main channel.

The above examination of the river has satisfactorily proved, that the works, which were designed with the above views, have produced very beneficial results, and that no bar has been deposited by the alterations.

Correct surveys and observations will show that, at present, the vertical rise of the tide at Petersburg is greater, and the fall or low water from Petersburg to City Point is less than in 1824; that the rise of the tide at City Point and Petersburg is not the same; and that an increase has taken place in the propagation of the flood, and its duration.

Besides, it will be found by a correct survey, accompanied by accurate longitudinal and transverse sections and observations, and which should always go before forming any design of improvement, that the capabilities of the river are fully ample to admit of a still greater available depth.

MOBILE, *September*, 1853.

Art. IX.—FREE BANKING IN THE SOUTHWEST.

[The following brief notes were drawn up by the Editor, at the request of a gentleman in the Southwest, and are by the same request inserted in the Review.]

IT will be admitted on all hands, that the great evil under which the whole Southwest is laboring, is the want of adequate capital to conduct the great enterprises in railroads and manufactories, which are necessary to the development of its resources, and the increase of its weight and influence in the Union.

It is but a few days ago that the New-Orleans and Nashville Railroad Company, passing, in a great portion of its extent, through the State of Mississippi, failing to obtain that capital at home which was necessary to its speedy construction, sought, and was disappointed in procuring, the aid of foreign capitalists.

If the Southwest would secure, in aid of her enterprises, the capital which is ever seeking investment, as product seeks a market, in every part of the Union, or abroad, she must adopt the course pursued by other sections—furnish secure, ready, and permanent means of its investment, under a just and liberal system of laws.

It matters not in what way the capital invited is invested; whether in lands, or in negroes, in factories, in railroads, in banking, or in general commerce. The great and leading consideration is, that it be invited, that it comes, and that it is retained and permanently invested.

Upon the subject of banking, some facts are well ascertained. The whole system of bond and mortgage, of pledge, of principal and surety, upon which commercial credit, and a large part of the operations of society, in every community, are based, has precisely the same foundation as that of banking.

The mortgage, the pledge, the security, may, and in not a few cases, does prove inadequate; but on this account has the whole system, so necessary to the convenience, and even necessities of the community, been abandoned?

The private note of an individual receives currency and credit in proportion as it is supposed to be supported by a fund adequate to its redemption; and where that fund is undisputed, and largely above the obligation, this note may approximate to the character and value of a mortgage. About such notes the community are seldom deceived.

Why are the community ever or more frequently deceived in regard to the value of a bank-note? It is, that the fund for its redemption, unlike that of an individual, is generally out of sight, and that the proportion sustained between the number of notes and the extent of the fund is difficult, sometimes impossible, to be ascertained.

Remove the two difficulties, let the extent of the fund and that of the issue, or of the mortgages based upon it, be clearly ascertained, and brought home to each individual in the community at every moment that a bank-note is offered to him, and let the information amount to the nature of a demonstration, and who can doubt that a bank-note will be a species of property as substantial and as enduring as an acre of land, as a negro, a house, or a mortgage upon any or all of these?

The opponents of a banking system, and they have been supported by too many melancholy examples, assert and maintain the impossibility of establishing a basis of paper issue which shall carry convertibility on its face, and fix in just and invariable proportions the relations of capital and credit, of means and liabilities. These constitute an extreme party in every community.

Another party, equally impressed with the evils of the system as it has existed, equally distrustful of its promises, believe and maintain that the conveniences of commerce and industry are so essentially subserved and promoted by the facilities of transfer of credit and capital, involved in the idea of a bank, that it is well worthy the attention of every thinking mind whether these benefits, after all, may not by some wise check, expedient, or device, be retained and enjoyed—whether we have not reasoned too strongly, from *abuses*—whether, in fine, we are not rash and hasty in adopting sternly and adhering to measures of total exclusion.

This latter party, democratic, anti-bank, has, North, South, East, and West, and particularly and most strongly in Louisiana, formerly the most anti-bank of all, in its search for these wise checks, expedients, and devices to which we have referred, arrived at and established what is now called and well known as Free Banking.

What is Free Banking? 1. It is opposed to the system of monetary monopoly; and gives to every man in the community the same right by a system of general laws, and not by special charters, of lending his money, or of borrowing it, to the best advantage. It is a system for the poor as well as the rich. 2. It regulates infallibly the relation between the issue of notes and the basis upon which the issue is made; and this it does by making it imperative upon the party issuing to deposit first in the coffers of the State securities entirely adequate to their redemption, and these securities are defined to be the stocks of State and Federal Governments, unimpeachable, and paying interest; securities that are generally conceded among all men, and in all countries, to be the very best. When this deposit is made in the coffers of the State, subject to be examined at any moment by any citizen, then, and then only, is the issue authorized, and the authorization stamped upon every note of the issue by the signature of the officer of the State himself.

The experience of our neighbor States who have adopted this system is uniform in its favor, and establishes its perfect reliability. Under its influence, capital has been attracted, industry has revived, wealth and confidence and security have been infused throughout the body politic, and wide and general prosperity secured.

Art. X.—THE U. S. CENSUS FOR 1850.

With the opening of the New Year, we are happy to be able to present the readers of the Review with a brief abstract of the so long desired and so loudly clamored for Census of 1850. Thanks to the energetic and indefatigable exertions of the present Superintendent for this ponderous and invaluable work. It is an elaborate exposition of the numbers, character, condition, and resources of this great nation. It exhibits the progress of 23,000,000 of Americans, during the last ten years—a progress unparalleled in the history of the world—a progress which astonishes the mind, when we contemplate it, either alone, or in contrast with that of any nation of Europe, or of the world at large.

Many have expressed surprise, if not indignation, that a work of such immense importance, and which has cost the government so much, should have been delayed so long. But there are few who can form an adequate conception of the immense labor which such a work requires. It is not the work of a day, or of a month, or of a year, as any one can see, who will inspect the ponderous tome now before us, and consider that it is a condensed form of only a part of 640,000 pages of large folio schedules, which are yet to be bound for preservation and deposit in the archives of the nation, and which will make, of themselves alone, about 800 compact volumes, each almost "a load for a camel." The pages of these volumes are about the size of those of the Baltimore *Sun*, or of the New-Orleans *Picayune*.

The Census of 1840 made about 350 such volumes of schedules, and that of 1830, 150 volumes. This will begin to give an idea of the progress of the nation. It is much to be regretted that the Census schedules, or returns of 1790, 1800, 1810, and 1820, are still unbound, and lying in the Census Office, in the greatest confusion. They certainly should be gathered up, bound, and preserved, as the only authentic historical and statistical records of those early decennial periods of our national existence.

To give the reader some farther idea of the enormous mass of materials out of which have been wrought, with immense labor, the results of the present Census, it is sufficient to say, that the amount of paper contained in the schedules is 3,000 reams, and weighing over 100 tons. All of this vast mass of printed schedules has passed through the U. S. Mail twice—once in being sent out to all the Marshals appointed to take the Census, and once in being returned; and it is remarkable that, in no instance, were any of them lost or damaged while being thus conveyed. The only loss sustained was that of a few of them by fire in California.*

The earliest returns received from the Marshals did not reach Washington until the 29th of August, 1850; and the last of them were not received until the 17th of February, 1852. The latest were those from California.

The number of medium paper schedules used by the Marshals was about 1,500,000. The number of Marshals, in all, was 45; and the number of Assistant Marshals, 3,231. The average number of clerks employed in the Census Office, in preparing the returns for publication, has been about 80 per year. Since the present Superintendent, Prof. J. D. B. De Bow, entered upon his duties, the average number employed has been 35. Since the 1st of July last, he has employed only about 15 clerks, who by excessive labor, working more hours per day than the law required, and until nine o'clock at night, have thus succeeded in enabling the Superintendent to lay the work before the country. The writer of this paper speaks from positive knowledge on this subject, being one of the corps of clerks of the Census Bureau.

---

* The returns from Santa Clara, California, were lost *en route* for Washington.

Many, throughout the country, have expressed, indignantly, the opinion, that the Census of 1850 might have been published sooner; but of this none are able to judge save those familiar with the amount and details of the work and the difficulty of the task. They should compare the progress made with our Census, with that of other countries, and they will then discover that we are not much behind other nations in this respect. The English Census of 1851 is not complete yet, although they have been laboring on it over two years and eight months; and the French Census of 1851 is still only partially completed for publication. Only a part of it is published, and the rest is still in progress.

The Census of 1850 is the seventh that has been taken since the commencement of the government; that of 1790 being the first. The aggregate expense of the different Censuses has been as follows: That of

1790	$44,377	1830	$378,545
1800	66,109	1840	833,370
1810	178,444	1850, exclusive of final printing, binding, etc.	1,318,027
1820	208,525		

The volume of the Census, as now published, is all that has been authorized by Congress; but by no means all. A vast amount of exceedingly valuable and interesting matter is still locked up in the schedules, awaiting publication. This matter omitted comprises *the entire industrial statistics of the nation*, besides the entire body of vital statistics, and those on various other important subjects—all of which have been taken and paid for by the government. They ought to be published, and we have no doubt that they will be. We really do not see why the government should go to so much expense in collecting all these valuable and interesting statistics, if, after all, they are not to be published, but suffered to lie on the shelves of the Census Office, perfectly inaccessible to the people, and therefore worthless.

We think that the U. S. Senate acted wisely in rejecting much of the matter that was proposed to them for publication by the previous Superintendent of the Census; but they made too sweeping a rejection, for they rejected much that was really valuable, and that properly belonged to the Census, in their laudable desire to get rid of a still larger amount of matter proposed for publication, which was really quite inappropriate, not being necessarily at all connected with the Census, nor to be found in the schedules, and, therefore, quite unauthorized. It was proposed, by the previous Superintendent, to publish a geographical and geological description of each State and territory of the Union, along with the statistics proper; but this, apart from its inappropriateness, would have swelled the Census to a number of enormous volumes, which would have made the expense to the government immense. Such a plan of publication was very wisely rejected. The balance still remaining unpublished strictly belongs to the Census, and would make only a moderate volume. Its importance to the people is great, and we therefore presume that Congress will order its immediate publication.

The present volume of the Census now before us contains — pages. We cannot, of course, in a single number of this Review, give a very extended notice of its various contents. We shall, however, without entering into minute details, give as many results as possible.

The total population of the United States, including all classes, taken decennially, since 1790, has been as follows:

1790	3,929,827	1830	12,866,020
1800	5,305,925	1840	17,069,453
1810	7,239,814	1850	23,191,876
1820	9,638,131		

The white, free colored, and slave population, since 1790, has been as follows:

	Whites.	Free colored.	Slaves	Total.
1790	3,172,464	59,466	697,897	3,929,827
1800	4,304,489	108,395	893,041	5,305,925
1810	5,862,004	186,446	1,191,364	7,239,814
1820	7,861,937	233,524	1,538,038	9,638,131
1830	10,537,378	319,599	2,009,043	12,866,020
1840	14,195,695	386,303	2,487,455	17,069,453
1850	19,553,068	434,495	3,204,313	23,191,876

This table does not include the Indians within the United States territories, in all, 400,764. Their numbers have increased as follows: In 1789, there were 76,000; in 1825, 129,366; and in 1850, 400,764.

The following table shows the ratio of increase in the United States of white, free colored, slaves, and total population, since 1790:*

CLASSES.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites	3,172,464	4,304,489	5,862,004	7,861,937	10,537,378	14,195,695	19,553,068
Free Colored	59,466	108,395	186,446	223,524	319,599	386,303	434,495
Slaves	697,897	893,041	1,191,364	1,538,038	2,009,043	2,487,455	3,204,313
Total Free	2,231,930	4,412,884	6,048,450	8,195,461	10,856,977	14,581,998	19,987,563
Total Colored	757,363	1,001,436	1,377,810	1,771,562	2,328,642	2,873,758	3.638,808

DECENNIAL INCREASE PER CENT. IN—

	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites	35.68	36.18	34.12	34.03	34.72	37.74
Free Colored	82.28	72	25.25	36.86	20.87	12.47
Slaves	28.1	33.4	29.10	30.62	23.81	28.82
Total Free	97.72	37.06	35.5	32.47	34.31	37.07
Total Colored	32.23	37.58	28.59	31.45	23.41	26.62

The following gives the proportion of white, free colored, and slave population of the United States at each census period:

CLASSES.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites	80.73	81.13	80.97	81.57	81.90	83.16	84.31
Free Colored	1.51	2	2.58	2.42	2.48	2.36	1.81
Slaves	17.76	16.83	16.46	15.96	15.62	14.57	13.82

The following table gives the proportion of sexes, at each census since 1790:

WHITES.	1790.		1800.†		1810.†		1820.†	
		As		As		As		As
Males	1,615.625	100	2,204,421	100	2,987,571	100	3,995,133	100
		to		to		to		to
Females	1,556,839	96.4	2,100,068	95.3	2,874,433	96.2	3,866,804	96.8

	1830.		1840.		1850.	
Males	5,366,263	100	7,255,534	100	10,026,402	100
Females	5,171,115	96·4	6,940,161	95.6	9,526,666	95

FREE COLORED.	1820.		1830.		1840.		1850.	
Males	114,966		153,453		186,481		208,724	—
Females	123,190	107.2	166,146	108.3	199,822	107.3	225,771	108.2
SLAVES.								
Males	788,028	—	1,012,823	—	1,246,517	—	1,602,535	—
Females	750,010	95.2	996,220	98.4	1,240,938	99.5	1,601,778	99.9

* In all of the ratio tables that have been framed in the office, no attention has been paid to the fact that between 1820 and 1830 only nine years and ten months elapsed, nor have the accretions of population, from annexations of new territory, &c., been taken into consideration. These matters are worthy of separate and special attention, for which time does not now admit

† No discrimination of the sexes in the colored population at these enumerations.

The following is a very interesting table, giving the employments of the free male population of the United States over fifteen years, for 1850:

States and Territories.	Com'erce, trade, manufactures, mechanic arts, and mining.	Agriculture.	Labor, not agricultural.	Army.	Sea and river navigation.	Learned Professions.	Other pursuits requiring education.	Government and civil service.	Domestic serv'ts.	Occupations not specified.	Total.
Maine	38,247	77,082	26,833	114	15,649	2,212	1,727	419	232	196	162,711
New-Hampshire	27,905	47,440	14,953	38	778	1,642	1,425	305	47	31	94,564
Vermont	17,063	48,327	22,997	—	159	1,827	1,563	129	34	127	92,226
Massachusetts	146,002	55,699	57,942	73	19,598	4,702	5,371	1,566	1,375	2,972	295,300
Rhod slan d	21,004	8,482	9,296	—	2,033	556	881	176	774	269	43,471
Connecticut	36,653	31,881	16,813	—	4,801	1,614	2,162	189	220	677	97,010
New-York	312,697	313,980	196,613	1462	23,243	14,258	11,104	4,985	6,324	3,628	888,294
New-Jersey	46,544	32,834	38,383	—	4,351	1,731	2,457	373	404	1,663	128,740
Pennsylvania	266,927	207,495	163,628	101	9,064	9,954	10,830	3,719	4,431	4,495	680,644
Delaware	5,633	7,884	6,663	—	743	251	581	124	69	113	22,061
Maryland	47,616	28,588	32,102	67	9,640	2,059	2,442	963	1,021	278	124,876
District of Columbia	6,128	421	2,535	91	186	330	436	559	507	16	11,209
Virginia	52,675	108,364	48,338	274	3,263	4,791	5,622	1,491	79	1,978	226,875
North Carolina	20,613	81,982	28,560	—	1,659	2,263	3,447	570	46	247	139,387
South Carolina	13,205	41,302	8,151	—	346	1,829	3,161	372	149	34	68,549
Georgia	20,715	83,362	11,505	18	282	2,815	3,942	416	15	173	123,243
Florida	2,380	5,977	2,666	423	708	357	302	268	12	42	13,135
Alabama	16,630	68,635	7,683	—	807	2,610	3,638	325	42	97	100,467
Mississippi	12,053	50,284	6,067	—	292	2,329	3,380	377	69	231	75,082
Louisiana	32,879	18,639	15,264	45	4,263	1,827	2,444	811	508	488	77,168
Texas	7,327	25,299	6,194	584	321	1,368	996	677	—	90	42,853
Arkansas	4,296	28,942	5,684	33	106	911	676	110	—	27	40,785
Tennessee	23,432	118,979	17,559	—	258	3,363	3,589	705	10	345	168,240
Kentucky	36,598	115,017	28,413	204	1,027	3,811	4,420	902	212	471	191,075
Ohio	142,687	270,362	92,766	—	4,109	9,001	8,263	1,219	1,167	1,219	530,792
Michigan	22,375	65,815	15,602	143	1,220	2,007	1,092	337	220	167	108,978
Indiana	45,318	163,229	29,854	—	1,725	4,229	3,031	677	184	449	248,606
Illinois	36,232	141,099	29,778	—	1,644	3,307	2,071	701	376	151	215,359
Missouri	30,098	65,561	20,326	305	2,471	2,893	3,147	767	1,458	1,149	128,175
Iowa	9,255	32,779	5,392	71	163	1,077	425	103	10	40	49,315
Wisconsin	20,526	40,980	13,196	77	561	1,477	800	185	191	146	78,139
California	69,007	2,059	3,771	140	617	876	198	130	710	123	77,631
Minnesota Territory	656	563	751	163	4	68	37	59	15	20	2,336
New-Mexico Territory	1,054	7,956	6,209	655	2	45	58	206	1,292	1	17,478
Oregon Territory	1,007	1,704	511	289	130	99	48	40	40	6	3,874
Utah Territory	628	1,581	622	—	18	26	48	12	—	—	3,135
Total	1,596,265	2,400,583	993,623	5370	116,341	94,515	95,814	24,966	22,243	22,159	5,371,876

The following table is very comprehensive. It exhibits the total population, and the number of births, marriages, deaths, dwellings and families, for 1850:

States, Territories, &c.	Population.			Births and Marriages during the year ending June 1, 1850.				Deaths during the year ending June 1, 1850.			White and free col'd population.	
	White and free col'd.	Slaves.	Total.	White and free col'd. Births.	Slaves. Births.	Total.* Births.	Whites. Married.	White and free colored.	Slaves.	Total.	No. of dwellings.	No. of families.
Maine	583,169	—	583,169	13,995	—	13,995	4,886	7,582	—	7,582	95,802	103,333
New-Hampshire	317,976	—	317,976	6,111	—	6,111	2,613	4,231	—	4,231	57,339	62,287
Vermont	314,120	—	314,120	6,594	—	6,594	2,653	3,129	—	3,129	56,421	58,573
Massachusetts	994,514	—	994,514	23,192	—	23,192	10,347	19,404	—	19,404	152,835	192,675
Rhode Island	147,545	—	147,545	3,610	—	3,610	1,327	2,241	—	2,241	22,379	28,216
Connecticut	370,792	—	370,792	7,646	—	7,646	3,213	5,781	—	5,781	64,013	73,448
New-York	3,097,394	—	3,097,394	76,337	—	76,337	31,465	45,584	—	45,584	473,936	566,869
New-Jersey	489,319	236	489,555	13,556	—	13,556	3,719	6,454	11	6,465	81,064	89,080
Pennsylvania	2,311,786	—	2,311,786	64,331	—	64,331	19,858	28,551	—	28,551	386,216	408,497
Delaware	89,242	2,290	91,532	2,495	59	2,554	564	1,188	21	1,209	15,290	15,439
Maryland	492,666	90,368	583,034	14,036	2,446	16,482	3,708	8,109	1,512	9,621	81,708	87,384
District of Columbia	48,000	3,687	51,687	1,248	71	1,319	373	789	57	846	7,917	8,343
Virginia	949,133	472,528	1,421,661	25,153	11,155	36,308	8,163	10,608	8,451	19,059	165,815	167,530
North Carolina	580,491	288,548	869,039	16,648	8,086	24,534	5,275	6,028	4,329	10,357	104,996	105,451
South Carolina	283,523	384,984	668,507	6,607	9,194	15,801	2,005	2,879	5,167	8,046	52,642	52,937
Georgia	524,503	381,682	906,185	15,239	9,619	24,858	4,977	4,592	5,331	9,923	91,011	91,471
Florida	48,135	39,310	87,445	1,322	914	2,236	431	491	440	931	9,022	9,107
Alabama	428,779	342,844	771,623	12,265	8,110	20,375	3,940	4,411	4,692	9,103	73,070	73,786
Mississippi	296,648	309,878	606,526	8,687	7,399	16,086	2,774	3,374	5,347	8,721	51,681	52,107
Louisiana	272,953	244,809	517,762	7,292	4,940	12,232	2,800	6,083	5,873	11,956	49,101	54,112
Texas	154,431	58,161	212,592	4,765	1,429	6,194	2,232	2,219	877	3,096	27,988	28,377
Arkansas	162,797	47,100	209,897	5,481	1,159	6,640	2,112	2,160	861	3,011	28,252	28,461
Tennessee	763,258	239,459	1,002,717	23,090	7,061	30,151	7,872	7,825	4,049	11,874	129,419	130,004
Kentucky	771,424	210,981	982,405	23,805	6,268	30,073	8,091	10,849	4,193	15,033	130,769	132,920
Missouri	594,622	87,422	682,044	19,632	2,699	22,331	6,989	12,121	1,296	13,414	96,849	100,890
Illinois	851,470	—	851,470	26,681	—	26,681	9,183	11,619	—	11,619	146,544	149,153
Indiana	988,416	—	988,416	32,296	—	32,296	12,423	12,808	—	12,808	170,178	171,564
Ohio	1,980,329	—	1,980,329	56,884	—	56,884	22,328	28,949	—	28,949	336,098	348,514
Michigan	397,654	—	397,654	10,898	—	10,898	4,257	4,515	—	4,515	71,616	72,611
Wisconsin	305,391	—	305,391	10,424	—	10,424	3,015	2,903	—	2,903	57,316	57,608
Iowa	192,214	—	192,214	6,099	—	6,099	1,824	2,044	—	2,044	32,962	33,517
California	92,597	—	92,597	273	—	273	—	905	—	905	23,742	24,567
Minnesota Territory	6,077	—	6,077	168	—	168	39	30	—	30	1,002	1,016
New-Mexico Territory	61,547	—	61,547	1,233	—	1,233	916	1,157	—	1,157	13,453	13,502
Oregon Territory	13,294	—	13,294	310	—	310	168	47	—	47	2,374	2,374
Utah Territory	11,380	—	11,380	432	—	432	404	239	—	239	2,322	2,322
Total	19,987,589	3,204,287	23,191,876	548,835	80,609	629,444	197,029	271,890	52,504	324,394	3,362,142	3,598,045

* The figures include those only who were surviving on this day, and therefore are but approximated.

The free colored population in the United States, in 1850, was as follows:

Maine	1,356	Mississippi	930
New-Hampshire	520	Louisiana	17,462
Vermont	718	Texas	397
Massachusetts	9,064	Arkansas	608
Rhode Island	3,670	Tennessee	6,422
Connecticut	7,693	Kentucky	10.011
New-York	49,069	Missouri	2,618
New-Jersey	23,810	Illinois	5,436
Pennsylvania	53,626	Indiana	11,26r
Delaware	18,073	Ohio	25,279
Maryland	74,723	Michigan	2,583
District of Columbia	10,059	Wisconsin	635
Virginia	54,333	Iowa	333
North Carolina	27,463	California	962
South Carolina	8,964	Minnesota Territory	39
Georgia	2,932	New-Mexico Territory	22
Florida	932	Oregon Territory	207
Alabama	2,265	Utah Territory	24
		Total	434,495

Of these, 208,736 were males, and 225,759 females; the excess of the latter over the former being 17,023. All were born in the United States, except 4,067 born in foreign countries.

The following table is very valuable, as showing the progress of the population of the several states since 1790:

States and Territories.	*Population.* 1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Maine	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,335	399,455	501,793	583,169
New-Hampshire	141,899	183,762	214.360	244,161	269,328	284,574	317,976
Vermont	85,416	154,465	217,713	235,764	280,652	291,948	314,120
Massachusetts	378,717	423,245	472,040	523,287	610,408	737,699	994,514
Rhode Island	69,110	69,122	77,031	83,059	97,199	108,830	147,545
Connecticut	238,141	251,002	262,042	275,202	297,675	309,978	370,792
	1,009,823	1,233,315	1,471,891	1,659,808	1,954,717	2,234,822	2,728,116
New-York	340,120	586,756	959,049	1,372,812	1,918,608	2,428,921	3,097,394
New-Jersey	184,139	211,949	245,555	277,575	320,823	373,306	489,555
Pennsylvania	434,373	602,365	810,091	1,049,458	1,348,233	1,724,033	2,311,786
Delaware	59,096	64,273	72,674	72,749	76,748	78,085	91,532
Maryland	319,728	341,548	380,546	407,350	447,040	470,019	583,034
Dis. of Columbia	—	14,093	24,023	33,039	39,834	43,712	51,687
	1,337,456	1,820,984	2,491,938	3,212,983	4,151,286	5,118,076	6,624,988
Virginia	748,308	880,200	974,622	1,065,379	1,211,405	1,239,797	1,421,661
North Carolina	393,751	478,103	555,500	638,829	737,987	753,419	869,039
South Carolina	249,073	345,591	415,115	502,741	581,185	594,398	668,507
Georgia	82,548	162,101	252,433	340,987	516,823	691,392	906,185
Florida	—	—	—	—	34,730	54,477	87,445
	1,473,680	1,865,995	2,197,670	2,547,936	3,082,130	3,333,483	3,952,837
Alabama	—	—	—	144,317	309,527	590,756	771,623
Mississippi	—	8,850	40,352	75,448	136,621	375,651	606,526
Louisiana	—	—	76,556	153,407	215,739	352,411	517,762
Texas	—	—	—	—	—	—	212,592
Arkansas	—	—	—	14,273	30,388	97,574	209,897
Tennessee	35,791	105,602	261,727	422,813	681,904	829,210	1,002,717
	35,791	114,452	378,635	810,258	1,374,179	2,245,602	3,321,117
Missouri	—	—	20,845	66,586	140,455	383,702	682,044
Kentucky	73,077	220,955	406,511	564,317	687,917	779,828	982,405
Ohio	—	45,365	230,760	581,434	937,903	1,519,467	1,980,329
Indiana	—	4,875	24,520	147,178	343,031	685,866	988,416
Illinois	—	—	12,282	55,211	157,445	476,183	851,470
Michigan	—	—	4,762	8,896	31,639	212,267	397,654
Wisconsin	—	—	—	—	—	30,945	305,391
Iowa	—	—	—	—	—	43,112	192,214
	73,077	271,195	699,680	1,423,622	2,298,390	4,131,370	6,379,923
California	—	—	—	—	—	—	92,597
Minnesota	—	—	—	—	—	—	6,077
New-Mexico	—	—	—	—	—	—	61,547
Oregon	—	—	—	—	—	—	13,294
Utah	—	—	—	—	—	—	11,380
	—	—	—				
							184,895
Aggregate	3,929,827	5,305,925	7,239,814	9,654,596	12,866,020	17,069,453	23,191,876

The following table exhibits the proportion of white males to females, in 1850. For every 100 males there are, in the different states, of the ages mentioned, the following number of females:

	Infancy.	*Youth.*			*Maturity.*			*Old Age.*					*Extreme old age.*	
States and Territories.	Under 5.	5 and under 10.	10 and under 15.	15 and under 20.	20 and under 30.	30 and under 40.	40 and under 50.	50 and under 60.	60 and under 70.	70 and under 80.	80 and under 90.	90 and under 100.	100 and upwards.	Age unknown.
Maine	96.2	97.04	96.65	99.96	93.83	93.52	94.04	98.96	97.49	100.44	104.57	120.8	44.44	33.77
New-Hampshire	97.31	96.86	96.64	111.23	102.53	103.34	103.84	109.49	113.88	116.67	131.13	166.22	120.0	85.71
Vermont	98.02	95.9	95.26	95.98	93.48	97.45	95.91	97.36	101.22	100.94	95.02	119.83	100.0	42.3
Massachusetts	98.28	99.12	97.77	114.68	106.46	96.5	99.82	110.42	118.3	128.5	146.47	199.47	225.0	17.42
Rhode Island	99.64	100.29	100.17	109.15	103.68	98.6	105.56	115.29	121.45	143.81	153.29	126.31	—	—
Connecticut	97.58	98.75	95.67	105.17	99.46	96.7	101.61	113.43	121.19	128.55	141.48	185.32	50.0	83.5
New-York	98.11	98.12	98.48	109.19	99.86	91.13	88.97	92.36	95.63	96.57	102.94	115.37	87.88	43.44
New-Jersey	97.8	98.26	95.39	106.06	102.27	95.59	93.99	101.89	106.21	110.49	128.67	169.44	150.0	83.53
Pennsylvania	97.55	98.29	96.12	106.06	98.74	92.38	91.69	95.37	101.29	105.16	120.66	121.19	155.0	67.17
Delaware	98.38	96.94	94.78	103.67	99.7	97.3	94 91	105.43	114.07	117.96	143.42	166.67	—	58.33
Maryland	98.78	98.03	97.24	108.16	95.04	90.58	92.92	101.45	112.14	121.75	147.44	180.95	142.86	75.0
District of Columbia	95.92	100.61	103.66	121.38	112.12	97.01	99.15	106.13	115.73	156.39	148.57	160.0	—	466.67
Virginia	96.42	96.15	95.88	104.99	100.08	97.0	96.26	98.35	99.9	106.6	107.7	127.1	125.0	82.05
North Carolina	95.14	96.6	95.06	105.3	107.85	108.22	107.91	109.41	117.26	114.04	107.78	160.0	238.88	82.6
South Carolina	95.0	97.06	96.23	105.42	101.53	98.32	100.28	98.3	104.1	117.96	126.11	170.51	480.0	107.77
Georgia	93.94	96.42	96.22	105.57	97.0	90.99	92.42	92.97	88.81	95.18	109.93	125.21	96.43	90.38
Florida	94.25	95.69	91.38	103.16	78.0	65.96	67.92	63.83	69.12	66.5	92.5	160.0	100.0	25.0
Alabama	95.56	97.89	96.4	102.72	98.27	84.69	85.88	79.69	83.52	86.72	102.3	81.55	190.0	71.93
Mississippi	93.92	96.27	95.15	101.95	86.99	74.58	77.13	71.12	78.89	88.84	98.68	91.43	157.14	92.54
Louisiana	97.24	96.12	98.25	117.68	79.95	54.84	54.44	64.85	81.67	92.27	118.25	96.67	133.33	16.2
Texas	95.53	92.42	91.4	103.02	74.82	60.68	62.92	61.32	67.63	63.29	77.77	144.44	109.09	11.18
Arkansas	95.68	95.81	93.69	99.24	87.13	73.88	74.32	71.22	69.17	67.15	118.84	185.71	66.67	66.67
Tennessee	96.19	96.6	95.19	102.79	100.7	98.49	101.25	91.89	96.11	94.78	94.88	108.88	191.43	91.07
Kentucky	95.64	96.16	95.82	101.63	92.58	85.28	88.77	89.1	96.76	90.63	97.3	101.69	110.71	66.67
Missouri	95.75	96.22	95.28	100.15	85.76	75.01	77.18	76.87	80.9	82.16	84.72	74.0	91.67	63.75
Illinois	96.52	95.66	92.73	97.4	88.82	79.13	80.5	76.93	80.82	81.12	86.11	98.18	50.0	61.96
Indiana	95.96	95.98	94.44	99.49	92.58	86.78	90.9	78.6	85.1	84.18	91.39	89.58	44.44	73.74
Ohio	97.13	97.1	96.51	103.77	94.18	88.87	87.44	91.71	84.57	84.87	88.08	87.58	95.65	73.64
Michigan	95.6	94.94	94.31	100.1	89.79	81.9	76.29	74.47	78.58	75.33	75.4	59.52	40.0	96.72
Wisconsin	96.34	93.87	93.19	97.9	82.59	71.45	72.69	72.92	73.07	73.7	71.75	260.0	100.0	71.43
Iowa	96.32	95.15	92.14	101.74	93.68	76.77	76.67	73.53	77.31	79.7	70.1	60.0	—	100.0
California	91.7	93.61	71.6	10.19	3.57	4.59	6.01	8.97	17.78	29.69	53.33	33.33	—	0.59
Minnesota Territory	102.42	98.07	87.96	102.66	48.96	34.86	45.17	41.08	58.97	17.65	66.67	—	—	—
New-Mexico Territory	99.41	98 25	91.06	120.27	99.11	80.85	82.3	76.53	67.72	82.75	64.43	47.46	110.52	0.7
Oregon Territory	92.57	102.97	96.51	77.55	3[illegible]77	40.65	47.0	38.76	37.03	31.25	—	100.0	—	71.05
Utah Territory	98.53	95.97	100.29	101.06	70.49	78.58	78.75	54.7	94.0	70.97	300.0	—	—	—

In the following table we have the increase of the white and free colored population, in the slaveholding states, since 1790. An inspection of the table shows that the increase of the white population, in the slave states, during the last ten years, has been greater than during any previous decade; that the free colored population has been very rapidly decreasing since

1790; and, during the last decade, more rapidly than during any previous one. The slave population, it will be seen, has made about the same increase duringthe last ten years, as during the first decade of this century:

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
White	1,271,488	1,702,980	2,208,785	2,831,560	3,660,758	4,632,530	6,222,418
Free col'd.	32,357	61,241	108,265	134,164	180,726	215,575	238,187
	2 7	857,095	1,163,854	1,517,400	2,005,475	2,486,326	3,204,051

	Decennial increase per cent. in					
	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
White	33.93	29.7	28.2	29.28	26.54	34,32
Free colored	89.27	76.78	23.92	34.7	19.28	10.49
Slaves	30.35	35.79	30.38	32.16	23.98	28.67

We compile the following table, with care, from the Census, for the purpose of showing the number, sex, and longevity of the slave population of the United States in 1850:

States, Territories, &c.	50 and under 60. Males.	50 and under 60. Females.	60 and under 70. Males.	60 and under 70. Females.	70 and under 80. Males.	70 and under 80. Females.	80 and under 90. Males.	80 and under 90. Females.	90 and under 100. Males.	90 and under 100. Females.	100 and upw'ds. Males.	100 and upw'ds. Females.	Total. Males.	Total. Females.	Aggregate.
Maine	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New-Hampshire	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vermont	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Massachusetts	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rhode Island	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Connecticut	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New-York	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New-Jersey	21	38	27	42	17	31	9	7	2	5	—	—	96	140	236
Pennsylvania	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Delaware	20	22	8	11	6	7	—	2	—	—	1	1	1,174	1,116	2,290
Maryland	1,926	1,850	1,187	1,175	549	510	190	196	41	74	24	31	45,044	44,421	90,368
District of Columbia	55	129	44	70	12	29	4	8	1	3	—	2	1,422	2,265	3,687
Virginia	12,138	10,850	7,614	6,981	3,028	3,264	958	1,196	263	334	87	184	240,562	231,966	472,528
North Carolina	6,814	6,327	3,637	3,606	1,520	1,665	570	658	132	202	66	98	144,581	143,967	288,548
South Carolina	8,771	8,750	5,426	5,502	2,008	2,022	613	638	154	200	81	86	187,756	197,228	384,984
Georgia	6,584	6,560	4,584	4,544	1,399	1,430	480	519	142	162	81	79	188,857	192,825	381,682
Florida	895	798	474	397	141	126	45	45	22	21	15	14	19,804	19,506	39,310
Alabama	6,368	6,030	3,774	3,451	1,068	959	338	338	97	93	65	61	171,804	171,040	342,844
Mississippi	4,854	4,390	3,139	2,889	825	727	288	243	85	85	47	73	154,674	154,626	309,878
Louisiana	5,955	4,864	3,032	2,338	937	771	319	225	81	59	57	66	125,874	118,935	244,800
Texas	898	829	373	332	100	93	40	34	12	12	6	10	28,700	29,461	58,161
Arkansas	653	580	378	339	75	88	30	24	11	6	9	5	23,658	23,442	47,100
Tennessee	4,421	4,468	2,050	2,137	719	833	233	287	82	98	31	47	118,780	120,679	239,459
Kentucky	3,734	3,985	1,819	2,123	621	913	198	255	61	94	28	53	105,063	105,918	210,981
Missouri	1,136	1,291	535	632	141	220	63	65	25	25	8	9	43,484	43,938	87,422
Illinois	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Indiana	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ohio	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Michigan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wisconsin	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Iowa	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
California	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Minnesota Territory	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oregon Territory	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Utah Territory	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	14	26
New-Mexico Territory	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	65,254	61,762	38,102	36,569	13,166	13,688	4,378	4,740	1,211	1,473	606	819	1,602.345	1,601,490	3,204,313

From the preceding table, it will be seen that there are in the United States 1,425 slaves over 100 years, and 2,684 between 90 and 100 years of age.

The number of adults, in the United States, in 1850, over twenty years of age, who could not read and write, was as follows:

States and Territories.	*Whites.* Males.	Females.	*Free Colored.* Males.	Females.	Native.	Fóreign.	Total.
Maine	3,259	2,888	77	58	2,134	4,148	6.282
New-Hampshire	1,662	1,295	26	26	945	2,064	3,009
Vermont	3,601	2,588	32	19	616	5,624	6,240
Massachusetts	11,578	15,961	375	431	1,861	26,484	28,345
Rhode Island	1,330	2,010	130	137	1,248	2,359	3,607
Connecticut	2,037	2,702	192	275	1,293	4,013	5,306
New-York	39,178	52,115	3,387	4,042	30,670	68,055	98,722
New-Jersey	6,007	8,241	2,167	2,250	12,787	5,878	18,665
Pennsylvania	24,380	42,548	4,115	5,229	51,283	24,989	76,272
Delaware	2,012	2,524	2,724	2,921	9,777	404	10,181
Maryland	8,557	12,258	9,422	11,640	38,426	3,451	41,877
District of Columbia	601	856	1,106	2,108	4,349	322	4,671
Virginia	30,244	46,761	5,141	6,374	87,383	1,137	88,520
North Carolina	26,239	47,327	3,099	3,758	80,083	340	80,423
South Carolina	5,897	9.788	421	459	16,460	104	16,564
Georgia	16,552	24,648	208	259	41,261	406	41,667
Florida	1,736	2,123	116	154	3,834	295	4,129
Alabama	13,163	20,594	108	127	33,853	139	33,992
Mississippi	5,522	7,883	75	48	13,447	81	13,528
Louisiana	9,842	1,379	1,038	2,351	18,339	6,271	24,610
Texas	4,998	5,537	34	24	8,095	2,488	10,583
Arkansas	6,810	10,009	61	55	16,908	27	16,935
Tennessee	28,469	49,053	506	591	78,114	505	78,619
Kentucky	27,754	38,933	1,431	1,588	67,359	2,347	69,706
Missouri	14,458	21,823	271	226	34,917	1,861	36,778
Illinois	16,633	23,421	605	624	35,336	5,947	41,283
Indiana	26,132	44,408	1,024	1,146	69,445	3,265	72,710
Ohio	22,994	38,036	2,366	2,624	56,958	9,062	66,020
Michigan	4,037	3,875	201	168	5,272	3,009	8,281
Wisconsin	2,930	3,431	55	37	1,551	4,902	6,453
Iowa	2,928	5,192	15	18	7,076	1,077	8,153
California	4,237	881	88	29	2,318	2,917	5,235
Minnesota Territory	389	260	—	—	259	390	649
New-Mexico "	13,334	11,751	2	2	24,429	660	25,089
Oregon "	86	71	3	2	99	63	162
Utah "	88	65	1	—	121	33	154
Total	389,664	573,234	40,722	49,800	858,306	195,114	1,053,420

The above table furnishes matter for much reflection and comment. It shows that one person in every twenty-three adults, in the United States, in 1850, could neither read nor write. It also shows that education is distributed among the white male and female population very unequally, the uneducated males being to the uneducated females in the proportion of about 3 to 5; or, in other words, where there were three uneducated males, there were five uneducated females. This is on the supposition that the males and females are equal in number, which is very nearly correct.

The total value of church property and of "church accommodations,"* in 1850, was as follows:

States and Territories.	Total Accommodations.	Church Property.
Maine	321,167	$1,725,845
New-Hampshire	237,417	1,405,786
Vermont	234,534	1,216,125
Massachusetts	691,823	10,206,184
Rhode Island	101,210	1,254,400
Connecticut	307,299	3,555,194
New-York	1,913,854	21,134,207
New-Jersey	345,733	3,680,936
Pennsylvania	1,574,873	11,586,115
Delaware	55,741	340.345
Maryland	379,465	3,947,884
Dis. of Columbia	34,120	363,000
Virginia	856,436	2,856,076
North Carolina	572,924	905.553
South Carolina	460,459	2,172,246
Georgia	627,197	1,269,359
Florida	44,960	165,400
Alabama	439,605	1,131,616
Mississippi	294,104	755,542
Louisiana	109,615	$1,782,470
Texas	63,575	204,930
Arkansas	60,226	89,315
Tennessee	625,595	1,216,101
Kentucky	671,033	2,252,448
Missouri	251.068	1,561,610
Illinois	486,576	1,482,185
Indiana	709,655	1,529,585
Ohio	1,457,294	5,793,099
Michigan	120,117	723,600
Wisconsin	97,773	353,900
Iowa	43,083	177,425
California	10,200	267,800
Minnesota Ter'ry	—	900
New-Mexico Ter.	100	94,100
Oregon Territory	28,650	76,520
Utah Territory	3,133	51,000
	4,200	—
Total	14,234,825	$87,328,801

---

* By "Church Accommodations," is meant the number of hearers a church can accommodate.

The value of the church property of some of the principal denominations was as follows:

Presbyterian	$14,543,789	German Reformed	$975,080
Baptists	11,020,855	Jews	330,600
Methodists	14,822,870	Lutherans	2,854,286
Roman Catholics	9,256,728	Mennonites	93,345
Unitarian	3,173,822	Moravians	411,667
Universalists	1,752,316	Orthodox Congregational	17,250
Episcopalian	11,375,010	Swedenborgian	108,600
Congregationalists	7,970,195	Tunkers	37,625
Christian	847,036	Union	644,715
Dutch Reformed	4,096,880	Other minor sects	967,930
Free	263,205		
Friends	1,713,767	Total	$87,328,801

The Census of 1850 does not give the number of church members of each denomination, which is much to be regretted. The number of "church accommodations" of each sect is of little importance, as it merely shows how many people the churches are capable of holding. Some denominations have very large churches, but very few church members. The census schedules are susceptible of great improvement; and, indeed, the accuracy of the census depends very much upon their completeness.

We give below the number of "church accommodations" of each denomination in 1850, for the benefit of those who may suppose that they afford some clue to the number of church members of each sect:

Baptist	3,247,029	Moravian	109,257
Christian	300,005	Orthodox Congregational	3,100
Congregational	801,835	Presbyterian	2,079,690
Dutch Reformed	180,636	Roman Catholic	667,823
Episcopal	643,598	Swedenborgian	5,170
Free	114,780	Tunker	22,325
Friends	286,323	Union	202,624
German Reformed	158,932	Unitarian	136,417
Jewish	15,175	Universalist	214,115
Lutheran	534,250	Minor sects	133,802
Mennonite	29,160		
Methodist	4,343,579	Total	14,234,825

In the following table we give the number of clergy, physicians, lawyers, authors, editors, professors, publishers, printers, students, surgeons, chemists, teachers, and merchants, in the United States in 1850:

	Clergy'n.	Phys'ns.	Surgeons.	Lawyers.	Authors.	Prof's.
Maine	928	659	—	560	—	13
New-Hampshire	649	623	—	326	—	11
Vermont	619	663	5	494	1	14
Massachusetts	1,662	1,643	14	1,111	17	35
Rhode Island	193	217	—	114	—	6
Connecticut	705	560	5	289	4	19
New-York	4,290	5,060	54	4,263	28	151
New-Jersey	650	608	—	412	3	27
Pennsylvania	2,789	4,071	25	2,503	13	106
Delaware	79	114	—	46	—	3
Maryland	453	990	—	535	—	73
District of Columbia	94	104	7	99	3	34
Virginia	1,087	2,163	15	1,384	—	56
North Carolina	747	1,083	—	399	1	9
South Carolina	474	905	—	397	—	41
Georgia	715	1,295	15	711	1	21
Florida	83	135	4	131	—	—
Alabama	702	1,264	3	570	1	15
Mississippi	471	1,217	—	590	—	16
Louisiana	229	912	2	622	—	47
Texas	308	616	3	428	—	—
Arkansas	233	449	—	224	—	—
Tennessee	1,081	1,523	—	725	1	18
Kentucky	931	1,818	5	995	2	39
Ohio	2,440	4,263	11	20,28	4	92
Michigan	557	854	4	560	2	10
Indiana	1,063	2,170	—	924	1	25
Illinois	1,023	1,402	3	817	—	6
Missouri	814	1,351	2	687	—	18
Iowa	248	542	5	272	—	4
Wisconsin	401	581	5	471	—	10
California	36	626	3	191	—	21
Minnesota Territory	32	13	—	23	—	—
New-Mexico Territory	24	9	—	11	—	—
Oregon Territory	29	45	1	22	—	—
Utah Territory	8	16	—	5	—	1
Total	26,482	40,564	191	23,939	82	942

Professions, continued.

	Teachers.	Students.	Chemists.	Publ'rs.	Printers.	Merc'ts.
Maine	588	692	1	7	258	2,065
New-Hampshire	221	952	4	—	211	1,021
Vermont	150	1,016	—	—	138	1,290
Massachusetts	1,052	2,622	49	51	1,229	5,338
Rhode Island	197	413	6	—	174	878
Connecticut	529	1,259	4	10	194	2,046
New-York	2,880	2,872	101	133	3,797	18,031
New-Jersey	840	972	23	7	345	2,615
Pennsylvania	3,508	3,153	200	72	3,000	13,116
Delaware	139	366	1	—	44	448
Maryland	798	904	16	10	384	3,429
District of Columbia	66	166	—	—	270	291
Virginia	1,785	3,125	2	—	318	4,621
North Carolina	1,189	2,095	—	—	138	1,913
South Carolina	739	1,989	9	1	141	1,661
Georgia	1,313	2,265	2	1	190	2,424
Florida	112	125	1	—	37	345
Alabama	1,109	2,269	2	—	174	2,468
Mississippi	902	2,287	—	2	147	1,506
Louisiana	791	598	4	2	317	3,958
Texas	418	347	1	4	119	985
Arkansas	329	307	—	—	64	567
Tennessee	1,411	1,932	—	1	150	2,372
Kentucky	1,664	2,012	1	3	265	3,192
Ohio	2,756	3,659	24	23	1,263	8,012
Michigan	231	433	1	5	255	1,580
Indiana	1,313	1,117	2	4	374	3,576
Illinois	843	703	3	12	213	2,558
Missouri	1,166	1,134	5	—	137	2,683
Iowa	235	68	1	—	97	835
Wisconsin	230	289	1	6	209	1,231
California	21	2	1	1	55	3,284
Minnesota Territory	10	—	—	—	11	87
New-Mexico Territory	8	5	—	—	6	134
Oregon Territory	21	1	—	—	11	164
Utah Territory	23	—	—	—	5	22
Total	29,587	42,149	465	355	14,740	100,752

The above table we have compiled from the census tables, giving all the professions and occupations in the United States in 1850.

The following table shows the number of children, in 1850, attending school:

States, District of Columbia, and Territories.	WHITES.		FREE COLORED.		Native.	Foreign.	Aggregate.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			
Maine	97,443	88,498	144	137	183,051	3,171	186,222
New-Hampshire	45,764	42,384	41	32	86,998	1,223	88,221
Vermont	47,997	44,155	58	32	88,746	3,496	92,242
Massachusetts	112,210	108,571	726	713	211,293	10,927	222, 20
Rhode Island	14,782	13,577	304	247	27,712	1,198	28,910
Connecticut	42,457	39,976	689	575	81,221	2,476	83,697
New-York	356,602	331,272	2,840	2,607	644,087	49,234	693,321
New-Jersey	48,065	41,210	1,243	1,083	88,892	2,709	91,601
Pennsylvania	263,451	234,660	3,385	3,114	488,823	15,787	504,610
Delaware	7,632	6,584	92	95	14,077	326	14,403
Maryland	32,214	28,233	886	730	60,386	1,677	62,063
Dis. of Columbia	3,137	2,966	232	235	6,485	85	6,570
Virginia	59,204	50,507	37	27	109,564	211	109,775
North Carolina	54,727	45,864	113	104	100,258	550	100,808
South Carolina	21,738	18,555	54	26	40,073	300	40,373
Georgia	42,365	34,650	1	—	76,915	101	77,016
Florida	2,545	2,201	29	37	4,704	108	4,812
Alabama	34,125	28,653	33	35	62,738	108	62,846
Mississippi	26,002	22,801	—	—	48,751	52	48,803
Louisiana	16,903	15,935	629	590	30,795	3,262	34,057
Texas	10,570	8,799	11	9	18,788	601	19.389
Arkansas	12,918	10,432	6	5	23,343	18	23,361
Tennessee	78,943	67,187	40	30	146,033	167	146,200
Kentucky	69,783	61,134	128	160	129,955	1,250	131,205
Missouri	51,146	44,099	23	17	92,031	3,254	95,285
Illinois	97,245	84,724	162	161	173,403	8,889	182,292
Indiana	119,496	100,538	484	443	218,227	2,734	220,961

States, &c.,	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Native.	Foreign.	Aggreg.
Ohio	270,254	242,024	1,321	1,210	498,527	16,282	514,809
Michigan	55,546	50,208	106	101	100,851	5,110	105,961
Wisconsin	29,096	27,258	32	35	45,508	10,913	56,421
Iowa	18,677	16,779	12	5	34,383	1,090	35,473
California	800	192	1	—	976	17	993
Minnesota Ter.	105	102	—	2	202	7	209
New-Mexico Ter.	361	105	—	—	464	2	466
Oregon Ter.	1,016	859	2	—	1,852	25	1,877
Utah Ter.	1,113	922	—	—	1,969	66	2,035
Total	2,146,142	1,916,614	13,864	12,597	3,942,081	147,426	4,069,507

The number of libraries in the United States, in 1850, other than private, was as follows:

States, District of Columbia, and Territories.	PUBLIC.		SCHOOL.		SUNDAY SCHOOL.	
	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Vols.
Maine	77	51,439	11	2,225	131	26,988
New-Hampshire	47	42,017	3	1,200	70	20,117
Vermont	30	21,061	16	9,700	38	10,020
Massachusetts	177	257,737	792	104,645	433	165,476
Rhode Island	26	42,007	12	5,814	50	23,765
Connecticut	42	38,299	4	5,039	107	38,445
New-York	43	197,229	19,802	1,388,729	137	33,294
New-Jersey	77	43,903	10	4,080	35	8,564
Pennsylvania	90	184,666	30	17,161	226	58,071
Delaware	4	10,250	—	—	12	2,700
Maryland	17	54,750	8	6,335	84	28,315
District of Columbia	7	66,100	—	—	—	—
Virginia	21	32,595	6	2,706	11	1,975
North Carolina	164	2,500	1	1,500	19	2,352
South Carolina		73,758	3	2,750	—	—
Georgia	3	6,500	11	1,800	15	1,988
Florida	1	1,000	2	800	4	860
Alabama	4	3,848	32	3,500	15	5,775
Mississippi	4	7,264	103	3,650	6	730
Louisiana	5	9,800	2	12,000	—	—
Texas	3	2,100	3	430	5	1,600
Arkansas	1	250	—	—	2	170
Tennessee	9	5,373	2	5,100	18	2,498
Kentucky	47	40,424	—	—	18	4,617
Missouri	13	23,106	13	17,150	66	14,500
Illinois	33	35,982	29	5,875	86	12,829
Indiana	58	46,238	3	1,800	85	11,265
Ohio	65	65,703	13	9,665	248	53,910
Michigan	280	65,116	119	31,427	15	3,500
Wisconsin	9	12,040	33	2,163	28	5,017
Iowa	4	2,650	4	160	24	2,980
California*	—	—	—	—	—	—
Minnesota Ter.	—	—	—	—	—	—
New-Mexico Ter.	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oregon Ter.	—	—	—	—	—	—
Utah Ter.	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	1,217	1,446,015	12,067	1,647,404	1,988	542,321

States, District of Columbia, and Territories.	COLLEGE.		CHURCH.		TOTAL.	
	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Vols.
Maine	8	39,625	9	1,692	236	121,969
New-Hampshire	3	19,975	6	2,450	129	85,759
Vermont	9	23,280	3	580	96	64,041
Massachusetts	18	141,400	42	14,757	1,462	684,015
Rhode Island	1	31,000	7	1,756	96	104,342
Connecticut	8	82,600	3	625	164	165,318
New-York	25	138,870	6	2,698	11,013	1,760,820
New-Jersey	4	24,000	2	338	128	80,885
Pennsylvania	21	77,050	26	26,452	393	363,400
Delaware	1	5,000	—	—	17	17,950
Maryland	10	33,792	5	1,850	124	125,042
District of Columbia	2	32,500	—	—	9	98,600
Virginia	14	50,856	2	330	54	88,462
North Carolina	5	21,593	9	1,647	38	29,592
South Carolina	7	30,964	—	—	26	107,472

*None returned for California and the Territories.

Libraries, continued.

	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Volumes.	Number.	Vols.
Georgia	9	21,500	—	—	38	31,788
Florida	—	—	—	—	7	2,660
Alabama	5	7,500	—	—	56	20,623
Mississippi	4	10,093	—	—	117	21,737
Louisiana	3	5,000	—	—	10	26,800
Texas	1	100	—	—	12	4,230
Arkansas	—	—	—	—	3	420
Tennessee	5	9,925	—	—	34	22,896
Kentucky	11	33,225	4	1,200	89	79,466
Missouri	4	19,700	1	600	97	75,056
Illinois	4	7,800	—	—	152	62,486
Indiana	4	8,700	1	400	151	68,403
Ohio	22	56,573	4	975	352	186,826
Michigan	3	7,900	—	—	417	107,943
Wisconsin	2	1,800	—	—	72	21,020
Iowa	—	—	—	—	32	5,790
California*	—	—	—	—	—	—
Minnesota Territory*	—	—	—	—	—	—
New-Mexico "	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oregon "	—	—	—	—	—	—
Utah "	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	213	942,321	130	58,350	15,615	4,636,411

The statistics regarding the newspaper and periodical literature of the country are extremely interesting. The table in relation to them, to be found on page 96, will be examined with interest, as exhibiting the character and number of newspapers published in the United States, in 1850.

The table which we insert on page 95, shows the number, and how often were issued, the newspapers and periodicals of 1850.

Those in the tri-weekly column, marked (*), were also issued semi-weekly; and those marked (*), in the semi-monthly column, were also issued monthly. There were also in Massachusetts four bi-monthly periodicals, with an annual circulation of 42,000; and three annuals, with a circulation of 45,000. Connecticut also had one bi-monthly, circulating 7,200 per annum; also, one published three times a year—circulation, 1,500. Pennsylvania had one annual, with a circulation of 2,500.

It being quite impossible to give a correct abstract of the census in a single number of the Review, we shall resume the subject in the next number, and then complete the subject.

---

* None returned for California and the Territories.

The following table shows the number of churches in the United States in 1850:

States and Territories.	Baptist.	Christian.	Congregational.	Dutch Reformed.	Episcopal.	Free.	Friends.	German Reformed.	Jewish.	Lutheran.	Mennonite.	Methodist.	Moravian.	Orthodox Congregational.	Presbyterian.	Roman Catholic.	Swedenborgian.	Tunker.	Union.	Unitarian.	Universalist.	Minor sects.	Total.
Maine	326	12	180	..	9	22	26	..	..	..	..	199	..	..	7	12	2	..	73	15	60	2	945
New-Hampshire	193	24	176	..	11	2	15	..	..	..	..	103	..	..	13	2	..	..	32	13	38	4	626
Vermont	102	9	175	..	26	1	7	..	..	..	..	140	..	..	11	8	..	..	76	2	138	4	599
Massachusetts	266	30	448	..	54	7	39	..	1	1	..	262	..	..	15	41	3	..	6	163	23	16	1,475
Rhode Island	106	8	21	..	26	2	18	..	1	..	..	23	..	..	..	7	2	..	4	4	4	2	228
Connecticut	114	4	252	..	101	1	5	..	2	..	..	185	..	..	17	12	..	..	4	5	122	10	734
New-York	781	65	215	233	279	15	133	1	9	81	4	1,231	3	..	671	176	2	..	75	22	13	25	4,134
New-Jersey	108	8	8	66	52	7	52	..	..	7	..	312	..	..	149	22	..	2	5	2	3	10	813
Pennsylvania	320	21	..	7	136	25	142	209	7	498	92	889	84	9	775	139	3	15	81	4	21	89	3,566
Delaware	12	..	..	..	21	..	9	..	..	..	..	106	..	..	26	3	..	..	1	..	..	2	180
Maryland	45	..	..	..	133	6	26	22	..	40	..	479	..	..	56	65	..	..	..	..	..	37	909
District of Columbia	6	..	..	..	8	.	1	..	..	2	..	16	..	..	6	6	..	..	..	1	..	..	46
Virginia	649	16	..	..	173	108	14	9	1	50	6	1,025	8	..	240	17	1	8	52	..	1	5	2,383
North Carolina	615	29	..	..	50	54	31	16	..	49	..	784	7	..	151	4	..	1	4	..	..	..	1,795
South Carolina	413	..	1	..	72	5	1	..	3	41	..	484	..	..	136	14	..	..	..	1	3	8	1,182
Georgia	879	5	1	..	20	6	2	..	..	8	..	795	1	..	97	8	..	..	30	..	3	7	1,862
Florida	56	..	..	..	10	1	..	..	..	..	..	87	..	..	16	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	*177
Alabama	579	17	..	..	17	5	..	..	..	1	..	577	..	..	162	5	..	..	4	1	2	3	1,373
Mississippi	385	8	..	..	13	3	..	..	..	..	..	454	..	..	143	9	..	..	1	..	..	..	1,016
Louisiana	77	3	..	..	14	3	..	1	1	..	..	125	..	..	18	55	..	..	6	..	1	2	306
Texas	82	5	..	..	5	7	..	..	..	..	..	176	..	..	45	13	..	..	2	.	..	6	341
Arkansas	114	..	..	..	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	168	..	..	52	7	..	..	5	..	..	13	362
Tennessee	646	59	..	..	17	30	4	..	..	12	..	861	..	..	363	3	..	1	15	..	..	3	2,014
Kentucky	803	111	..	..	19	34	..	..	1	5	..	530	..	..	224	48	..	1	30	1	7	31	1,845
Missouri	300	57	..	..	11	13	..	..	1	21	1	250	3	..	125	65	..	..	11	2	1	19	880
Illinois	282	69	46	2	27	2	6	3	..	42	..	405	2	..	206	59	1	4	30	4	7	26	1,223
Indiana	428	187	2	5	24	10	89	5	..	63	..	778	57	..	282	63	..	5	5	1	15	13	2,032
Ohio	551	90	100	5	79	13	94	71	3	260	10	1,529	160	..	663	130	2	14	48	1	53	60	3,936
Michigan	66	2	29	10	25	1	7	..	..	12	..	119	1	..	72	44	..	..	3	.	7	1	399
Wisconsin	49	4	37	2	19	2	..	..	..	20	..	110	..	..	40	64	..	..	1	..	6	11	365
Iowa	20	10	14	..	5	..	5	1	..	4	..	71	2	..	38	18	..	..	4	..	1	..	193
California	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	..	..	3	18	..	..	..	..	..	..	28
Minnesota Territory	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
New-Mexico do.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	73	..	..	..	..	..		73
Oregon do.	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	9
†Utah do.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	9
Total	9,375	853	1,706	330	1,459	386	726	338	30	1,217	113	13,280	328	9	4,824	1,221	16	51	606	242	529	409	38,061

* Including two churches returned simply as "Protestant."

† The Marshal returns nine churches, without giving the denominations.

States and Territories.	DAILY.		TRI-WEEKLY.		SEMI-WEEKLY.		WEEKLY.		SEMI-MONTHLY.		MONTHLY.		QUARTERLY.		*Aggregate.*	
	Number.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Number of copies printed annually.
Maine	4	964,040	5	*302,900	—	—	39	2,906,124	—	—	1	30,000	—	—	49	4,203,964
New-Hampshire	....	......	....	......	—	—	35	3,038,152	1	15,600	2	13,800	—	—	38	3,067,552
Vermont	2	172,150	....	......	1	228,800	30	2,142,712	—	—	2	24,000	—	—	35	2,567,662
Massachusetts	22	40,498,444	4	351,400	11	2,070,016	126	20,371,104	3	61,800	29	1,357,200	7	24,000	209	64,820,564
Rhode Island	5	1,768,450	....	......	2	25,200	12	963,300	—	—	—	--	—	—	19	2,756,950
Connecticut	7	1,752,800	4	374,400	—	—	30	2,117,232	—	—	1	6,000	2	8,800	46	4,267,932
New-York	51	63,928,685	8	776,100	13	3,116,360	308	39,205,920	9	1,704,000	36	6,629,808	3	24,600	428	115,385,473
New-Jersey	6	2,175,350	....	......	—	—	43	1,900,288	2	23,040	—	—	—	—	51	4,098,678
Pennsylvania	24	50,416,788	2	78,000	1	62,400	261	27,359,384	19	6,972,000	—	—	2	7,600	310	84,898,672
Delaware	....	......	....	......	3	62,400	7	358,800	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	421,200
Maryland	6	15,806,500	4	499,700	—	—	54	3,166,124	1	48,000	3	22,400	—	—	68	19,612,724
District of Columbia	5	6,149,198	5	*1,208,610	—	—	8	3,769,428	—	—	—	—	—	—	18	11,127,236
Virginia	15	4,992,350	12	*1,416,550	—	—	55	2,518,568	3	267,600	1	24,000	1	4,000	87	9,223,068
North Carolina	....	......	5	*414,310	—	—	40	1,530,204	6	*76,050	—	—	—	—	51	2,020,564
South Carolina	7	5,070,600	5	*549,250	—	—	27	1,413,880	5	*102,600	—	—	2	9,600	46	7,145,930
Georgia	5	1,086,110	3	*146,380	—	—	37	2,609,776	6	*228,600	—	—	—	—	51	4,070,866
Florida	....	......	1	*31,200	—	—	9	288,600	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	319,800
Alabama	6	869,201	5	*266,500	-	—	48	1,509,040	1	18,000	—	—	—	—	60	2,662,741
Mississippi	....	.....	4	*245,440	—	—	46	1,507,064	—	—	—	—	—	—	50	1,752,504
Louisiana	11	9,947,140	6	*676,000	—	—	37	1,646,684	—	—	1	146,400	—	—	55	12,416,224
Texas	....	......	5	*525,400	—	—	29	771,524	—	—	—	—	—	—	34	1,296,924
Arkansas	....	......	....	......	—	—	9	377,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	9	377,000
Tennessee	8	4,407,666	2	*266,240	—	—	36	2,139,644	—	—	4	127,200	—	—	50	6,940,750
Kentucky	9	2,243,584	7	*1,125,280	—	—	38	3,053,024	8	*160,950	—	—	—	—	62	6,582,838
Missouri	5	3,380,400	4	*273,000	—	—	45	2,406,560	—	—	7	135,600	—	—	61	6,195,560
Illinois	8	1,120,540	4	*214,500	—	—	84	3,575,936	3	43,200	7	147,200	1	900	107	5,102,276
Indiana	9	1,153,092	2	*195,000	—	—	95	2,920,736	1	48,000	—	—	—	—	107	4,316,828
Ohio	26	14,285,633	10	*1,047,930	—	—	201	13,334,204	23	*1,781,640	—	—	1	24,000	261	30,473,407
Michigan	3	1,252,000	2	*52,000	—	—	47	1,685,736	3	134,400	3	123,600	—	..	58	3,247,736
Wisconsin	6	1,053,245	4	*198,250	—	—	35	1,395,992	—	—	1	18,000	—	..	46	2,665,487
Iowa	....	......	2	*577,200	—	—	25	923,000	—	—	2	12,600	—	..	29	1,512,800
California	4	626,000	....	......	..	..	3	135,200	—	—	—	—	—	..	7	761,200
Minnesota Territory	....	......	....	......	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..	..	..
New-Mexico Territory	....	.....	....	......	..	..	1	20,800	1	18,000	..	..	..	..	2	38,800
Oregon Territory	....	......	....	......	..	..	2	58,968	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	58,968
Utah Territory	....	......	....	......	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	254	235,119,966	115	11,811,140	31	5,565,176	1902	153,120,708	95	11,703,480	100	8,887,808	19	103,500	2,526	426,409,978

States and Territories.	*Literary and Miscellaneous.*			*Neutral and Independent.*			*Political.*			*Religious.*			*Scientific.*			*Aggregate.*		
	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.	Number.	Circulation.	Number of copies printed annually.
Maine	15	20,458	987,216	..	....	......	29	29,695	2,501,680	4	8,434	438,568	1	5,300	275,600	49	63,887	4,203,064
New-Hampshire	10	11,790	579,480	..	....	......	22	32,186	1,673,672	5	15,500	778,000	1	700	36,400	38	60,176	3,067,552
Vermont	5	5,550	208,600	..	....	......	27	33,990	2,025,430	3	6,416	333,632	..	....	....	35	45,956	2,567,662
Massachusetts	80	263,027	11,794,304	9	50,700	13,591,000	82	171,387	32,996,800	24	117,650	4,405,200	14	94,205	2,033,260	209	716,969	64,820,564
Rhode Island	6	5,400	280,800	1	2,500	762,500	12	18,075	1,693,650	..	....	......	..	....	....	19	25,975	2,756,950
Connecticut	12	11,200	489,900	..	....	......	28	34,916	3,422,432	4	5,400	223,200	1	1,200	7,200	46	53,116	*4,267,932
New-York	101	528,908	18,449,016	15	127,370	37,317,010	263	399,755	45,463,015	37	507,246	12,438,432	12	59,500	1,718,000	428	1,622,779	115,385,473
New-Jersey	6	4,010	181,640	1	300	93,900	44	40,144	3,823,138	..	....	......	..	....	....	51	44,454	4,098,678
Pennsylvania	71	445,364	18,515,028	12	70,396	21,908,548	198	267,940	37,808,960	28	198,018	6,588,136	1	1,500	78,000	310	983,218	84,898,672
Delaware	2	900	46,800	..	....	......	8	6,600	374,400	..	....	......	..	....	...	10	7,500	421,200
Maryland	20	71,000	14,654,000	1	700	8,400	39	31,637	4,196,924	6	13,950	669,400	2	7,000	84,000	68	124,287	19,612,724
Dis. of Columbia	2	1,575	81,900	1	350	54,600	15	99,437	10,990,736	..	....	......	..	....	....	18	101,362	11,127,236
Virginia	10	5,690	247,880	5	4,200	1,251,900	62	51,988	6,698,176	9	25,256	1,001,112	1	2,000	24,000	87	89,134	9,223,068
North Carolina	8	5,675	266,200	2	875	113,750	35	24,564	1,457,664	6	5,725	182,950	.	....	....	51	36,839	2,020,564
South Carolina	10	12,700	474,800	5	8,300	2,140,400	24	28,115	4,310.930	5	4,600	195,000	2	2,000	24,800	46	55,715	7,145,930
Georgia	18	29,638	1,411,976	6	3,046	747,340	20	20,900	1,491,350	3	4,600	239,200	4	9,300	181,000	51	67,484	4,070,866
Florida	..	....	.....	..	....	......	7	3,500	202,600	3	2,250	117,000	..	....	....	10	5,750	319,800
Alabama	11	5,100	265,200	1	1,090	313,000	45	24,336	1,889,169	2	3,450	158,400	1	711	36,972	60	34,597	2,662,741
Mississippi	10	4,490	233,480	..	....	......	40	26,380	1,519,024	..	....	......	..	....	....	50	30,870	1,752,504
Louisiana	13	22,025	657,300	6	12,000	3,335,100	34	45,522	8,356,224	1	1,000	52,000	1	300	15,600	55	80,847	12,416,224
Texas	17	6,737	350,324	1	1,400	148,400	14	8,350	660,400	2	2,650	137,800	..	....	....	34	19,137	1,296,924
Arkansas	3	3,300	171,600	..	....	......	6	3,950	205,400	..	....	......	..	....	....	9	7,250	377,000
Tennessee	5	10,350	206,200	2	1,610	503,930	36	33,147	5,138,580	7	22,770	1,092,040	..	....	....	50	67,877	6,940,750
Kentucky	12	14,900	650,800	2	800	250,400	42	55,936	5,245,888	5	12,525	429,450	1	525	6,300	62	84,686	6,582,838
Missouri	17	19,400	608,800	..	....	......	42	48,340	5,496,280	2	2,740	90,480	..	....	....	61	70,480	6,195,560
Illinois	22	17,725	721,700	1	1,290	403,770	73	51,111	3,384,162	8	12,097	499,044	3	6,400	93,600	107	88,623	5,102,276
Indiana	21	12,452	647,504	..	....	......	84	47,900	3,569,324	2	3,000	100,000	..	....	....	107	63,352	4.316,828
Ohio	37	111,790	3,865,860	6	13,485	4,220,805	192	189,304	18,865,282	21	90,130	3,334,240	5	10,400	187,200	261	415,109	30,473,407
Michigan	13	13,625	456,500	1	200	26,000	39	28,793	2,556,836	3	5,600	134,400	2	4,500	74,000	58	52,718	3,247,736
Wisconsin	3	2,500	130,000	..	....	......	42	29,236	2,517,467	..	...	......	1	1,500	18,000	46	33,236	2,665,487
Iowa	2	1,000	36,000	1	1,200	187,200	25	20,150	1,281,800	1	650	7,800	..	....	....	29	23,000	1,512,800
California	3	2,600	135,200	4	2,000	626,000	..	....	....	..	....	......	..	....	....	7	4,600	761,200
Minnesota Ter'y	..	.. ..	......	..	....	......	..	....	....	..	....	......	..	....	....	..	....	......
New-Mexico Ter'y	2	900	38,800	..	....	......	..	....	...	..	....	......	..	....	....	2	900	38,800
Oregon Territory	1	624	32,448	..	...	......	1	510	26,520	..	....	......	..	....	....	2	1,134	58,968
Utah Territory	..	....	......	..	....	......	..	....	....	..	....	......	.	....	....	..	....	......
Total	568	1,692,403	77,877,276	83	303,722	88,023,953	1,630	1,907,794	221,844,133	191	1,071,657	33,645,481	53	207,041	4,893,932	2,526	5,183,017	420,409,978

* Including one paper, character not defined—400 circulation, and 125,000 printed annually.

Art. II.—AGRICULTURE.

AGRICULTURAL FAIRS—COMPETITION OF INDIA IN THE COTTON PRODUCTION—TEXAS COTTON—GUANO, ETC.

At no previous period, in the South, has there ever been exhibited so much excitement on the subject of Agriculture, as at the present moment. A great agricultural fair is now being held in Augusta, Georgia, which, from all accounts, must present the most interesting exhibitions of Southern agricultural products that have ever been witnessed. Another is now in progress in Baltimore, which is worthy of a visit from every one engaged in agricultural pursuits, or who is any way in the study of the agricultural products of our country. Besides being largely attended by citizens, far and near, it has been honored with the presence of the President of the United States, and other distinguished persons. Another agricultural fair, we understand, is soon to be held at Richmond.

Much has been said, of late years, both by the English and the Americans, of the progress of cotton-raising in India, and of the probable effect of its culture there upon American cotton. The English have incessantly advanced the opinion that England could become entirely independent of America, in respect to cotton, by giving its culture in India proper encouragement. This has long been a fond idea with them, and one which they have ardently cherished and supported by every fact that they could bring to bear upon it, and by every argument that they could invent. But all their schemes, efforts, experiments, and predictions have failed, andthey now begin to abandon the idea as stale and unprofitable. The *London Times*, of the 30th of September last, takes the lead in the recantation, in an article headed, "The Cotton Crops of America and India," which we presume will be interesting to our readers. It is, of course, interlarded with the usual *quantum* of twaddle about negro slavery and abolitionism, as all the English articles are; but as this will only serve to amuse our readers, we give it entire. It says nothing, of course, about the factory slaves of "happy England," and of the practical slavery that prevails so largely, in fact, in many parts of India, the *North American Review* to the contrary, notwithstanding. Here it is:—

THE COTTON CROPS OF AMERICA AND INDIA.

The letter of our correspondent at New-York will be read with interest, as describing some important changes, contemplated or in progress, from a point of view not common in this country. The Americans are pre-eminently a calculating people, and their calculations, though occasionally a little too confident and keen, may nevertheless be useful to us of this sleepy and comfortable Old World. We have dreamt so long about projected Indian railways, and improvable Indian cultivation, and possible Indian cotton crops, and ports and harbors in the same prospective category, that we have come to regard the whole affair as Alanschar's dream—a fabric that a touch may destroy—and which will do nobody any good, in our time at least. Not so the Yankees. As soon as they see us fairly at it, and hear that the sacred turf of Hindoostan has actually been moved for a railway, and insulted by a profane locomotive, they set to work speculating on the consequences, particularly to themselves. They see, looming across the world, vast mountains of cotton wool, destined to feed the British loom, and clothe the world, with fabulous cheapness. Looking at home, they see, as a natural consequence, the cotton cultivation of the Southern States—perhaps the most rapid growth in the history of trade—reduced to sudden bankruptcy, and passing away even more quickly than it sprang into being. The train of consequences does not stop here. The profit of cotton cultivation has ever been the chief element in the value of the negro, and when the former falls below zero, the latter will be *nil.* Thus this dark incubus, which has always rested over the soil and prospects of the Union, which has puzzled statesmen and occupied philanthropists, and which seems so obstinate that the mere cost of abolition, should it ever be effected, is estimated at £300,000,000, but of which the cost is the very least difficulty, disappears like a summer cloud. We turn our eyes for a moment, and it is gone. It expires from simple exhaustion. Solid as it seems, it is but a bubble, blown up by a speculation which, meeting with an unexpected rival, falls below paying point, and leaves the "domestic institution" as valueless as the decayed butler of a reduced gentleman. Thus inscrutable Providence performs with a touch the work on which we had been lavishing our interest for ages. While the placid Hindoo picks the cotton, cleans the fleecy crop, and then with wondering obedience feeds the fire of the locomotive, waves the flag, or turns the points, he is unwittingly knocking the fetters off three million children of Ham, on the other side of the world. He underbids the negro's toil, for the latter is doubly chargeable, for coercion as well as for maintenance. By the same unexpected interposition, the great stumbling block to the peace of the Union is removed, and the Northern and Southern States will forget their feuds. Such is the prospect of which we are allowed one happy glimpse in the letter of our American correspondent; and we cannot but add that, if this could be effected, we on our side of the water would be spared a prodigious deal of philanthropy of the most unctuous and most surfeiting description. We should be spared it very soon, for, if Brother Jonathan had not a slave of his own, he would soon lend a hand to see that nobody else had one.

* * * * * * * *

But it may somewhat assuage the soreness on this subject, if any soreness exists in the mind of any sensible American, to reflect that the Englishman has no more pecuniary interest in the prosperity of the Hindoo than in that of the American cotton-grower and slave-owner. Fortunately, or unfortunately, as it may be regarded in different aspects, British and American commerce are all but one thing. We are all debtor and creditor together, with one circulation of paper amongst us, borrowing and lending, and dependent, more than most of us are aware, on the maintenance of the general credit, which, in its turn, depends on the aggregate wealth of the trading community in all countries. Credit is the platonic soul of the mercantile world, and like that soul, subject to sad hindrances, chains, and fluctuations. So far as concerns mere hard cash, we have even a more beneficial interest in the negro than in the Hindoo. We have all the benefits of his industry and of his custom, of his wife's love of finery, and every other want whcih close contact with civilization has not failed to impart. We have the benefit of his master's more developed and costly tastes. Should our customers, in their collective capacity, wish to annex a neighboring territory, to avenge an imaginary insult, or to give employment to a few soldiers out of work, they pay the bill themselves, and don't ask a contribution out of our taxes. What, of all this, can be said of the Hindoo, of his simple wants, of the government under which he lives, and the wars with which the number of his fellow-subjects is increased? No. As a question of pounds, shillings, and pence, the scale is decidedly in favor of American *versus* Indian cotton. On the question of philanthropy, of national honor, and of national pride, there can be only one opinion, and that is the opinion of all educated Englishmen. We are bound to raise India somewhat nearer our own level, and to mark our dominion with other signs than barracks on the face of the country, and other results on the population than the uniform of its soldiery. Our obligations to the United States are those of men to their equals; to the Hindoo they are of a more parental character. Ere the wheel of fortune turns, ere the stream of conquest ebbs, and the word is given that it is too late, we must turn to the noblest account a dominion which has ever been the highest object of military ambition, and which now renders us the envy of all nations. In this account we rejoice to think that the Americans anticipate much from our incipient Indian railways.

Since our last number of the REVIEW, we have received additional information regarding the state of the present cotton crop. A Texas planter, who has had an opportunity of seeing much of the present crop throughout the South, writes to the editors of the *Galveston News* as follows:

"I have travelled through all the Southern States except Florida. I live on the Brazos River in Texas. From Huntsville to Red River the cotton crop is very poor. In many sections the weed is high and looks fine, but the bolls or forms are scarce. Farmers tell me the heavy rains caused it to shed. One-half of a crop is as much as will be made along the road I travelled through Eastern Texas. From Grand Ecore, on the Red River, fifteen miles below Alexandria, the crop is worse than ever before grew there. So say the planters. I have known that country for twenty years. The growth of the weed is luxuriant, but there are very few bolls. In the Tensas Valley—the best cotton land in the world except the Brazos—there is the same complaint. Too much rain has caused the weed to be rank, and the bolls few and far between. The same is the case in the Rodney Hills. All through Hinks and adjoining counties the crop is also very poor. Through the eastern counties of Mississippi, the cotton will not average more than 18 to 24 inches in height. The same is the case in Green County, Alabama, only worse. There is not a crop of cotton from Gainsville to Greensborough, that will make 500 pounds per acre. I do not believe the crop all through Green, Perry, &c., to the State line of Georgia, will average more than 200 pounds to the acre. In Georgia and South Carolina the cotton is not over from 10 to 24 inches high, as far as I have seen. If the States through which I have travelled do not average more than present appearances indicate, or than the people generally believe, the falling off in this year's crop cannot be less than 500,000 bales. In the western portion of Texas the crop is good, and I have not seen a good crop anywhere else."

As everything appertaining to guano is interesting to the agricultural world, we lay before our readers the following, regarding the guano as it exists on the guano islands, (Chincha Isles,) the mode of loading ships with it, &c., as communicated to the *Providence Journal* by Captain Congdon:—

Vessels all load at the lee side of the island. At this time the guano has been removed from the edge of the island in places, say one thousand feet. Rails are laid, and cars used to bring it to the edge of the rocks and dump it into large bins or shutes made of long poles interwoven with ropes and chains to support them, wide at the upper ends and narrow at the lower. These hold from one hundred to five hundred tons. At the lower end are gates or scuttles, and from these gates are canvas bags of about two feet in diameter, leading to the ships and boats below. The ships are hauled close to the rocks, and moored off and on. The hose are led at once into the hatch, the gates above are hoisted, and you can imagine the force with which it comes down through this hose of one hundred feet. A thousand ton ship can be loaded in forty-eight hours. Smaller bins are used by the boats, which all prefer, as we have much less dust. A ship under the spout or hose is completely enveloped in a cloud of dust, making it almost impossible to exist on board. The guano is trimmed away in the hold by natives, with oakum tied over their mouths and noses, and veils over their eyes; this lets in the air and excludes the dust. They can only stay below from twenty to thirty minutes. They are in gangs of eight or ten, and relieve each other as above. Every part of the vessel is penetrated with this dust. It will go wherever smoke will. I can compare it to nothing but so much dry ashes. The guano abounds in hartshorn, and is said to be very healthy and beneficial in some complaints.

The vessels are all of one color from truck to water. Not a spear of grass, rush, or reed, is to be seen anywhere, no vegetable matter of any kind on the island. Where the guano is now removed is a perpendicular bank of about one hundred feet. In it are found dead birds, some even on their nests with eggs under them. I have seen several of them perfect in shape, still pure guano. Most of them crumble to dust when exposed to the air. Layers of reeds and twigs are to be found through the guano, said to be brought there from the mainland by the birds, for their nests. As we walk over the islands we find holes innumerable. These are the habitations of the birds. With daylight they go seaward for food, and return with darkness to spend the night on the islands. They are of various kinds—pelicans, penguins, many of the duck species, &c. Seals and sea-lions are seen in thousands, sporting among the rocks and ships, and basking in the sun.

Every vessel that comes here has a certain number of lay days—about ten days for every hundred tons. Most of us have to lay here our days out. At daylight dozens of boats can be seen around the spouts waiting for loads. Daily accounts are kept of each ship's days and turns; so many loads per day are allowd them—say first week, two loads per day, second week, three loads per day, third week, four loads per day. We are all supplied with boats; they hold from ten to twelve tons, and are generally ships' long boats, sold to Peruvians when they leave for home. Laborers cannot be hired here at any price; we can only work our own men.

One would imagine that it would be impossible to exist in the clouds of dust. The men are all of one color—you cannot tell a white man from a black one when at work in it. It is fun for our sailors. As a general thing I never saw a set of men more interested for their employers than they are in loading our boats. They lay in it, roll and wrestle, and at times are completely buried in it. These shutes that lead into the vessel's hold are dangerous. Cases have occurred where men have slipped in at the mouth of the hose as the guano went in or down, and were never seen again, or dead, if found at all. At times, when there is much serf on, I have seen the hose come out of the hatch, and the guano go thirty feet from the sides of the vessel the bigness of the hose.

Art. XII.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Since the publication of our last number, so large an amount of matter relating to internal improvements has accumulated, that it is difficult to make a selection, or even to give the half of it in a single number. We offer what we think will be of the most general interest.

The *Louisville and Knoxville Railroad*, now projected, and likely to be soon commenced, will be about 140 miles long, and will cost $4,000,000. It is confidently expected that most of the capital will be raised in Kentucky alone.

We learn from a late report of the *Ohio Central Railroad Company*, that the whole western division of that road is now completed, and built in so substantial a manner as to place it in the front rank of first class roads, admitting of the heaviest trains and the highest rates of speed. The cost of the western division, up to the present time, has been $1,172,516 71—equal to $19,873 per mile. The expenditures upon the eastern division have been $783,983 71. The expenditures for machinery, &c., common to both divisions, have been $263,577 50. These different sums make the aggregate expenditures $2,219,776 90, which, deducted from $2,839,240, the gross resources of the company, show a balance of resources on hand available towards the completion of the road, of $619,862 34.

From a recent report of the directors of the *Ohio and Mississippi Railroad*, it appears that it is confidently expected that the road to the junction with the Illinois Central Railroad, (about sixty miles,) will be completed by the 1st of January next, and the whole line to Vincennes by the 1st of July, 1855. The amount of money already expended is $612,604 77. There are 2,500 men at work on the line, and everything is going on prosperously.

The great *Chicago and St. Louis Railroad* is rapidly approaching its completion. The desideratum is a continuous line of railroad between Chicago and St. Louis. To supply this want is the object of the Chicago and St. Louis, or technically, the Chicago and Mississippi road, a considerable portion of which is completed, and the remainder in rapid progress. The whole length of line immediately to be constructed, is 220 miles, as at present that portion of the Rock Island and Chicago road between Chicago and Joliet, a distance of 40 miles, will be used; the whole distance between Chicago and Alton being about 260 miles. Of the lower portion of the line, 113 miles are already in operation.

It is announced this road will be entirely completed by the 1st of February next.

The entire cost of the road is estimated at $6,000,000. The funded debt we believe would be $3,000,000. The amount already expended in construction, including amount due in outstanding contracts, is $5,370,309.

From the *American Railroad Journal*, it appears that a company has been organized for constructing a railroad to connect Fredericksburg and Gordonsville, Virginia. It will be from 40 to 50 miles.

Dr. B. L. Welford of Fredericksburg is president of the Board of Direction, and Mr. B. H. Latrobe, the well-known chief engineer of the Baltimore and Ohio Road, is consulting engineer; while Mr. George McLeod has been appointed chief engineer of the work.

Under the superintendence of these gentlemen the surveys are now going forward, and it is anticipated that nearly an air line with every favorable grade may be decided upon. It is expected that this road, when completed, will considerably shorten the route from Baltimore to the South and Southwest, and therefore command the great bulk of the through travel in those directions. The anticipated cost of the road, when fully equipped, is about $600,000, a large proportion of which is secured.

The *Louisville and Nashville Railroad*, the main stem of which extends from Louisville to Nashville, a distance of 180 miles, is making very rapid and satisfactory progress. The means of the company appear to be ample. The stock subscriptions amount to $4,085,000.

The work of construction was commenced January, 1853. By the terms of the contract, 30 miles are to be opened by the 1st of January, 1854, and the whole line by the 1st of November, 1855. The iron for the whole line has been purchased, and is to be of American manufacture.

The progress of the *Sault Ste Marie Canal* is a matter of considerable public interest, and we are happy to be able to lay before our readers some information on the subject. When completed, vessels will then be able to pass from Lake Superior to the Atlantic Ocean, by using the Welland Canal. The *Lake Superior Journal* says, that the work on the canal is progressing very rapidly. The force of the contractors has all been concentrated on the lock sites. About two hundred men are now at work on the upper lock, and every day shows a decided progress. The excavation, at its lower end, is within twenty-four inches of the bottom, and one week of fair weather will probably see one-third of the lock ready for laying down the foundation timbers, which is the last preparatory work needed before commencing the massive walls.

The bailing wheel pit is sunk to a depth of 18 feet, and is to go somewhere lower. The last five feet of it has been composed of solid, hard red sandstone, in layers of a foot or more in thickness, which is a sure indication that a part, if not the whole, of the lower lock bottom, will be of the same material, which will be far better than was feared might be found. The company have purchased a powerful steam tug, which is expected here the coming week with some large scows, with which the business of bringing stone from Drummond's Island will at once be commenced.

The work for carpenters and masons is just commencing, and soon there will be a large force of each class employed. The first crib of the pier at the lower end of the canal has been sunk in its place, and in a short time the company's dock will be doing a lively business. A force of about 25 men are now employed in cutting down and hewing timber, for locks and piers on Sugar Island, 12 miles below this place, on some fine lands which the company located for this purpose. The company have contracted for the facestone of the locks to be procured at Malden, near Detroit, but expect to use the limestone of Drummond's Island for the backing or most bulky portion of the walls. Every part of the work is therefore now fairly commenced.

Art. XIII.—EDITORIALS, ETC.

We have the pleasure of acknowledging the receipt of the following valuable works from Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., Publishers, Boston:—

Memoirs and Correspondence of Francis Horner, Esq., M. P. Edited by his brother, Leonard Horner, F. R. S. 2 vols. 1853.—Here is a work of sterling merit—a work that will be read by all with pleasure and profit. The account of Mr. Horner's early life and studies is intensely interesting; and his correspondence with Jeffrey, Mackintosh, Erskine, Abercrombie, Dugald Stewart, Henry Hallam, Lord Seymour, Lord Holland, Lafayette, Earl Gray, the Duchess of Somerset, Lady Holland, Mrs. Dugald Stewart, the Hon. Mrs. W. Spencer, and a long list of other distinguished personages, renders the work peculiarly valuable. Horner was distinguished as a scholar; and his career in the British Parliament was brilliant.

The British Poets.—Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., of Boston, are now engaged in the laudable enterprise of giving to the American public a new and improved edition of the British poets, from Spenser to Young, in separate volumes, duodecimo, each volume being accompanied with a life of the author and critical notes, by the Rev. John Mitford, and others. The work is published in the very best style, and at an incredibly cheap rate. The undertaking deserves the most liberal patronage; for, after all, a single one of these old British poets is worth a dozen of our modern poetasters. The series now publishing is nearly complete. We have before us Cowper, Collins, Prior and Butler.

INDEX TO PERIODICAL LITERATURE. By WM. FRED. POOLE, A. M. New-York, Charles B. Norton. 1853.—This is truly a valuable work. It is a complete key to the periodical literature of the day. Writers, and all who are required to consult the principal reviewers and magazines, will find this work quite indispensable.

BUSY MOMENTS OF AN IDLE WOMAN. Appleton & Co., N. Y.; Frank Taylor, Washington. 1853.—This is a work of sprightly, life-like sketches, which will doubtless please the majority of readers.

We take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of an able printed circular, from a highly respectable citizen of Aberdeen, Miss., on the subject of the New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Rail-road. We are sorry that it comes so late for an extended notice in this number of the REVIEW. We can assure our esteemed correspondent, that, so far from having neglected the New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Rail-road, we have prepared several special notices of that great work, which, however, were crowded out of our pages by other matter that had been long on hand. Rail-roads in the United States have become so numerous, that it would be quite impossible to notice the tenth part of them in every number of the REVIEW. Nevertheless, we have noticed slightly, in the September and November numbers, both the Mobile and Ohio, and the New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Rail-roads. We hope to be able to devote some space to the latter road in our next number.

McCORD'S REPLY TO ABBOTT LAWRENCE.

LANGSYNE, S. C., Nov. 20, 1853.

DEAR SIR—In an article in your present November number on the "Growth, Trade, and Manufacture of Cotton," I have observed a fact stated which has been decidedly disproved more than once, by reference to the record. Some years since, Mr. Abbott Lawrence, in his letter to Mr. Rives, attributes the protective feature of the tariff of 1816 to the South, or cotton-growing States, and stated that it was forced upon the North, or New-England, against its will and votes at the time. The fact was then contradicted by the newspapers at the South. It had been expressly disproved, as I shall show. But the North scorned, as usual, to notice any refutation of slander or false charge against the South. And again, your article (it does not appear who is the author) gives the following as the true version of the circumstances attending the passage of that law: "Mr. Lowell, whose profound knowledge of the business and eminent abilities peculiarly fitted him to impart correct information to others, (in short, to fulfil the duties of a lobby member from New-England,) repaired to Washington in the winter of 1816; and, in confidential intercourse with some of the leading members of Congress, *he fixed their attention* on the importance, the prospects, and the dangers of the cotton manufacture. The Middle States, under the lead of Pennsylvania, were strong in the manufacturing interest. The West was about equally divided. The New-England States, attached from the settlement of the country to commercial and navigating pursuits, were less disposed to embark in the new policy, which was thought adverse to some branches of foreign trade, and particularly to the trade with India, from which the supply of coarse cottons was principally derived. The Southern States, and particularly *South Carolina*, then represented by several gentlemen of distinguished ability, held the balance between the rival interests. After a protracted discussion, marked by eminent ability on both sides, the *South*, under the able lead of the distinguished and lamented John C. Calhoun, gave their influence to the new measure, and the tariff of 1816 was established. This was the first legislative enactment recognizing the existence of the cotton manufacture in this country."

I do not hesitate to say that the main charge made in this statement against the South, and South Carolina in particular, is untrue. That Mr. Calhoun and some others of our members voted for that measure, I admit; and Mr. Calhoun's mistake on that occasion, which he must have regretted to his death, has always been attributed by his friends in South Carolina to the fact of his having been educated in New-England. I believe it was the misfortune of his life.

In July, 1846, in an article in the *Southern Quarterly*, on Mr. Clay and the American System, I took occasion in refutation of Mr. Lawrence's letter to Mr. Rives, to examine the Congressional documents published a few years before that, containing all the different tariffs, with the votes of both Houses on their passage through Congress. The following is a correct statement, which I drew from the record:

"In the House of Representatives the Bill passed by 83 to 54. The cotton-growing States were at that time North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Louisiana, (Alabama, Mississippi, &c., were not yet States;) of these four States, seven members voted for the Bill, eighteen against it. In the Senate, one member from South Carolina and one from Georgia were absent. But there were thirty-two votes in the Senate. From the following Northern States—New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Vermont, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, there were *fourteen votes for the Bill, and two against it*. If the seven votes of the cotton-growing States, then present in the Senate, had all voted against the bill, it would have made no difference, for the bill passed in the Senate twenty-five to seven. *There were but two votes in the Senate from all the Northern and New-England States against the measure.* These two votes were, to their credit be it said, those of *Jeremiah Mason*, from New-Hampshire, and *Christopher Gore*, from Massachusetts. Every Senator from

Rhode Island, Connecticut, Vermont, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, voted for the measure. Including the two votes against the bill above mentioned, there were but seven Senators, two from Maryland, one from Virginia, and two from North Carolina, that voted against the bill. Kentucky, Ohio, and Tennessee voted for the bill.

"Of the New-England votes in the House, there were seventeen for the bill, and ten against it. If we were to class Virginia with the cotton-growing States, which we might well do, it would cause the balance to be still greater in their favor: for in the House, seven of her members voted for the bill, and thirteen against it. It was much more the measure of New-England, and more decidedly a Northern than a Southern measure."

In the debate of 1830, on Foote's resolutions, General Hayne, in his admirable reply to Mr. Webster, says: "But, Mr. President, to be serious, what are we of the South to think of what we have heard this day? The Senator from Massachusetts tells us that the tariff is not an Eastern measure, and treats it as if the East had no interest in it. The Senator from Missouri insists it is not a Western measure, and that it has done no good to the West. The South comes in, and in the most earnest manner represents to you, that this measure, which we are told is of no value to the East or to the West, is utterly destructive to our interests, &c., and our brethren turn a deaf ear to our complaints."

After this publication and these contradictions, it does seem to me, Mr. Editor, to be carrying presumption very far, for your correspondent to lay the charge of the commencement of the system of protective tariff against the South, and South Carolina in particular, when in the same paragraph in which the charge is made, he states that the measure was due to the talents and exertions of Mr. Lowell, a Massachusetts man, who had enterprise enough to influence "certain leading members of Congress," by confidential intercourse and lobby solicitations, to do that which was injurious to all the South, while it only operated injuriously to "some branches" of New-England trade, but really to the benefit of Mr. Lowell, Mr. Slater, and other New-England and Northern capitalists, and "wealthy gentlemen in Boston." The West being also humbugged, was equally derided, and suffered with the South. The bargain with Louisiana, by which her vote was obtained in favor of protection, to raise the price of her sugar, is not yet forgotten. But from whence Mr. Lawrence obtained his evidence for the assertion made at the same time in his letter to Mr. Rives, that "the primary object on the part of these members of Congress representing the cotton-planting States, *in establishing a high protective tariff*, was to attend the consumption of their great staple in this country, *by excluding foreign-made fabrics, and substituting a domestic article, manufactured of American cotton*," I cannot imagine. I should be glad to see the evidence; for, until I do see it, I cannot believe that those gentlemen would have thus stultified themselves. As Mr. Lawrence has made the charge under his own signature, I shall deny it under mine.

Yours respectfully,

D. J. M'Cord, of South Carolina.

DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL

OF

Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, Internal Improvements, Statistics, etc., etc.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

VOL. XVI. FEBRUARY, 1854. No. 2.

Art. I.—TURKEY—ITS COMMERCE AND ITS DESTINY.

THE empire of the Turks, comprehending its European and Asiatic boundaries, has been the seat of the mightiest kingdoms that ever flourished. Originally but a chieftaincy, the territorial jurisdiction of the Ottomans now extends from the Persian Gulf to the Black Sea in Asia, and from the Kurdistan Mountains, which divide it from Persia, to the shores of the Mediterranean on the west. Their sovereignty over this vast expanse of country, which includes the remains of the mightiest cities and kingdoms of antiquity, is arbitrary and supreme; and within this compass the eye everywhere rests on the temples of Islamism, and the ruins of barbaric and civilized splendors, which mark the revolutions and violent usurpations of ages. The possessions of the Sultan in Europe extend from the Black Sea to the River Unna, which separates the empire from Southern Hungary; and from the western frontiers of Livadia, in Greece, to the River Sereth, which empties into the Danube, where that river first impinges on the Waldavian territory. The European portion of the empire is only nominally under the rule of the Turkish Sultans. It is divided into a number of principalities, in some of which the Greek, in some the Christian, and in some the Mohammedan religion prevails, while the civil laws and political government of each differ, and are, to more or less extent, independent of the Sultanic sovereignty. Until recently, Russian diplomacy and intrigue had obtained for that power superior ascendency in the principalities; but since the Hungarian war, and owing to the Servian influence, which has materially changed in tone, and now inclines more partially to the Turkish side, the feeling in favor of the Ottoman rule among the masses, Greek as well as Mohammedan, increases, as the former partiality for Russia subsides.

Our space limits us to a mere glance at the rise and history of Turkey. As a power, it was not recognized until the thirteenth century. Nineteen hundred years had elapsed from the founding of the Assyrian empire to the going forth of Othman, and his introduction of the Scythian-Tartar race into the plains of Nicomedia. During this long period, Syria and Asia Minor had been the theatre of many a conquest and sanguinary conflict. Conqueror after conqueror had strode over each territory, and subjected them to the bloody baptisms of ambition, and the desolations of war. Empire after empire had passed away, each leaving monuments of its weakness or greatness, until in our day these stupendous but crumbling vestiges are the wonder of the world. After the Assyrian came the Medo-Persian rule. After the fall of Babylon and Persepolis, and the final defeat of Darius, the empire passed into the hands of Alexander,—the first general that had ever fought his way from the West towards the East; and who in turn, beset by another power from the West, greater than he, yielded up Syria and Asia Minor, and thus they became provinces of Rome. From their possession by Rome they became the prey of the Western emperors. In turn, they were wrested from the Greeks by the children of Hager and Ishmael, by the fierce Saracens, whose brilliant exploits threatened for a time the subjugation of Europe. At this point the history of the Turks, as a people, begins. Of Scythian-Tartar origin, they had descended into the plains of Assyria from the East, and had been raised from menial positions to be captains and chief officers in the army and political government of the Saracens. Thus employed, they had peculiar opportunities for moulding a national character, and obtaining an insight into the strategy of war and the policies of peace. Being in high military and civil stations of command, they had absolute control of the army movements of the Saracen Caliphs, and would, perhaps, but for the interposition of the Crusades, have ultimately directed the lances of the infidel soldiers against the bosoms of their sovereigns. But the temporary success of the Crusaders, and the final defeat of Saladin under the walls of Joffa, followed by the appearance of a counter-scourge in the person of Genghis Khan on the north, led to the speedy dismemberment of the Saracen empire, and the dispersion of many of the Turkish leaders. Othman, passing the mountains of Olympus, settled, himself and forty, (some authorities have it 400,) families in the plains of Nicomedia, in Bithynia, now called Isnikmid, in which province, at the head of the sea of Mamara, the Turkish town of Ismid now stands. In these fertile and obscure valleys the exiled general and his followers lived, prospered, and propagated. This was the origin of the Mohammedan Ottoman empire. Protected by the waters of the Mediterranean and the Propontis on the west and north, and by the mountains Ida and Olympus on the south and east, the early settlers had little occasion to fear eruptions from the hordes which peopled Central Asia, or from the Mongol Tartars, which began to pour down upon Persia, Arabia, and the Saracen empire. Their selection of position was of the most judicious character. The life of the immigrants was principally passed in pastoral pursuits; but as the Mamelukes had now recovered Palestine and Syria, with whom the Turks were on a good understanding, Othman began to build castles, to discipline troops, and to encroach upon the Nicomedians, the original possessors of the soil. His success in all his undertakings was triumphant. Gradually the exile community took the form of a government. From being defensive, it became aggressive in its policy. As it grew in physical strength, it seemed to acquire in ambition; and the more it obtained, the more apparently was required to appease its thirst. Othman died in 1326. Oscan, his son, succeeded him, and pushed his conquests until all the territories of Bithynia and Nicomedia, with Nice and Prusa, were added to his possessions. He called himself Sultan, and put on regal robes. Amurath I. succeeded to the title, and, after conquering Thrace, made Adrianople his capital. This was the first foothold of the Turk in Europe. Bajazet, surnamed the Lightning, (in compliment to his quick military movements,) ascended the throne in 1389. He conquered all the Greek possessions in Asia, and in the great battle of Nicopolis (1396), he overthrew Sigismund of Hungary, the leader of an army of French, Germans, and Hungarians, organized for the express purpose of subduing the dangerous conqueror. Thus a second time was the repose of Europe disturbed by the near approach of the infidel—first by the Saracen, and then by the Turk, who had served as a slave in the camp of the former. But the scourge which had appeared in the North, in the person of Genghis Khan, and whose coming had shaken Central Asia, and imparted terror to Europe, proved a source of benefit to the latter at last. Tamerlane, a descendant of the Mongol Khan, (but a Turk by birth,) served Europe in this emergency better than it had been able to serve itself. Tamerlane, jealous of his rival, Bajazet, after massacring the inhabitants of Ispahan, and building pyramids of their reeking heads, to indicate how terrible was his vengeance, and to mark his love of havoc and slaughter, marched against the Turkish conqueror, met him at Angora, routed his army, and took him prisoner. Bajazet died in the camp of his fearful enemy, after long months of imprisonment in an iron cage, in which he had to endure the humiliation and mortification of being exhibited to the curious throughout the marches of the cruel Mongol. But this interposition relieved Europe of a dreadful scourge, while it afforded time for preparation against like perils in future. But the death of Bajazet did not relax the energy or damp the warlike spirit of his sons. To them, and their successors, down to the reign of Solyman the Magnificent, may be ascribed all the glories ever won for the empire since their day, for surely it was the most splendid and dazzling period of the Ottoman history. When, sword in hand, Mohammed II. entered Constantinople, and placed himself on the throne of Justinian, he may well have called for the sheath of his cimetar, which he had discarded years before; for if ambition could be sated, the fall of the capital of the Western empire, the wiping away of the last vestige of Roman omnipotence, and the diadem which had encircled the brow of Constantine, would surely have sufficed for a sordid conqueror, much less one who had, in an eminent degree, many noble and solid qualities of heart.

Events in Turkish history now crowd so fast upon us, that, merely for the purpose of keeping up the continuity of our subject, we must be content with simple allusions to the main circumstances.

1451 to 1480.—Repeated invasion of the Austrian territories. Acquisition of the possessions of the Genoese in Crimea, and subjection of the Crimean Tartars.

1480 to 1512.—Wars with Hungary, Venice, and Egypt. The Christians treated with some degree of tolerance.

1513 to 1560.—Peace with Venice. The Persians routed at Kalderoon. Mesopotamia and Kurdistan added to the empire. The Mamelukes, with whom a rupture had been had, defeated near Aleppo. Cairo taken by storm. Part of Egypt and Syria added to the empire. Mecca and Medina are made subject to the Sultans. Solyman the Magnificent gives a code of laws to his subjects. Encourages learning and the arts. Belgrade and Rhodes taken. Hungary invaded, and Louis, the king, slain. An alliance with France, being the first with any Christian nation. The combined fleet of the Christians defeated, off Djerbich, on the coast of Africa.

1560 to 1600.—After the death of Solyman, the monarchs become noted for their indolence, and the empire suffers from neglect. Battle of Lepanto, which resulted so disastrously to the Turks. War with Persia. Revolt of the Janizaries, and their attempt to fire Constantinople, in which they partially succeed. Power of Turkey begins to decline in Hungary.

1600 to 1700.—Power of the Porte declines. War with Persia proves disastrous. Mustapha I. deposed for imbecility. Supposed to have been suborned by Persia.* Battle of Shibli, in which the Persians defeat the Tartar-Turkish army. Unsuccessful attempt to invade Poland. Invasion of Persia, and Tabreez and Bagdad taken. Peace, and retrocession of Turkish conquests by Persia. War with Austria, for the supremacy of Transylvania. The Turks defeated at the battle of St. Gothard. Candia taken, after a siege of 21 years. First war with Russia, on account of the Cossacks. The Porte cedes the Cossack territory and the Ukraine. War with Austria, growing out of unsettled disputes. Defeated by Sobieski, before Vienna, and military ascendency of the Turks in Europe broken. Zenta defeated by Prince Eugene.

---

* It is curious that so ridiculous a statement should appear in history.

1700 to 1760.—Peace of Carlowitz, in the treaty of which the Porte cedes to Austria all Hungary, Transylvania, Croatia, (except Belgrade,) and Temesmai; to Poland it ceded Kaminick and Podolia; to Russia, Azoff; and to Venice, the Morea and the Dalmatian fortress. The ascendency of the Turks in Europe, by this treaty, utterly checked. An interregnum of peace. Hostilities reopened with Venice, and the Morea reconquered. Hostilities with Hungary; unsuccessful campaigns, and loss of Belgrade. A printing-press introduced into the empire, (1721,) by the Turkish Ambassador at the Court of France. War against Persia, and repulse of the Ottoman troops. Turks driven from their former Persian conquests. Reign of Mustapha III. The arts of peace encouraged. Trade flourishes; and the empire, while it enjoys tranquillity, advances in civilization.

1760 to 1774.—War with Russia, in behalf of Poland. The Dneister crossed on the ice, and the Russians driven out of New Servia. Defeat of Kahloul, and the Turks forced across the Danube in retreat. Loss of Beuda, Wallachia, and Moldavia. The Russians cross the Danube, attack the Turks on their own territory, and completely rout them. Henceforth the Porte sinks into a defensive policy, and Russia pronounces the *ultimatum* or *status quo*.

1774 to 1853.—The Russians seize Crim Tartary. War against Russia and Austria—the Austrians defeated. Invasion of Hungary, and seizure of Choezin and Oczakow. Alliance with Prussia. Battle of Imail, in which the Turks lose 40,000 soldiers. Peace with Russia and Austria, with other losses to the Turks. Peace with France, on the evacuation of Egypt. The French obtain great influence with the Porte; hence war with England and Russia. Another revolt of the Janizaries, who massacre the new-disciplined troops. Advancement of the arts and public instruction. Greek revolutionary war. Greek declaration of independence. The Morea a republic;—Greece a kingdom.

We have thus briefly brought to the reader's attention the leading features which connect the ancient and modern history of Turkey, and its more important relations with Europe. It will be remarked that the Sultans of the Porte have been by no means inactive. They have, collectively, enacted a conspicuous part in the theatre of political affairs; and the empire has borne more thrusts from the javelins of enemies on all sides, than any kingdom ever established on the European Continent. This may sound strange to those who are not familiar with the history of the Turks; but it is nevertheless true. Internally and externally—beset by the Janizaries and lurking assassins within, and the envious world without, Christian as well as Pagan—the wonder is that the empire has withstood it, throughout a period of seven hundred years, still acquiring in strength, and adding to or retaining its political and territorial dominion.

Turkey, as an agglomerate empire, is necessarily made up of different races, nations, and tongues; and, we might add, of all religions. Originally a chieftaincy, it has, as it has progressed, incorporated nations and tribes, with their territories; so that, although the legitimate race claim Scythian-Tartar origin, it by no means follows that any great proportion of the population have really such a descent. Polygamy has prevailed in the empire for centuries; and the harems of the higher order of Turks have generally been stocked from among the women of Persia, Arabia, Circassia, and Georgia; and by the lower orders, from among the women of the Danubian principalities and Greece. Every child is trained to adopt Mohammedanism from its cradle—that is, among the Osman population—without respect to paternity; and to claim descent from the Scythians, although the father may have been born of pure Saracen blood, and the mother have come from the hills of Croatia. It is difficult, therefore, to class the Turkish population, and to follow their generic origin. In Asia, it is an intermixture of the Caucasian varieties of the race, and a farther admixture with the Mongols; while, in European Turkey, the Mongol amalgamation is almost entirely unknown, the Caucasian amalgamation is greater. As Turkey in Asia has always been regarded by the Mohammedan as his true country, while Turkey in Europe has been merely regarded by him as a conquest, much may be gathered from this, why, as a nation, the Turks have been disinclined to commerce. The prejudices of religion prevented them from enriching the principalities by opening a lucrative trade with Europe by the Danube. Egypt and Greece already belonged to them, and in the rear of the empire in Asia, hostile hordes were ever ready to prey upon the caravans trading to and from the East. They found it more to their advantage to strengthen their empire by the sword, and depend upon Asia Minor, Egypt, and Greece for surplus supplies of the prime necessaries of life, than to trust the fate of the empire to chance, by the nation turning merchants, tradesmen and husbandmen, although the pursuits of commerce and husbandry might realize more happiness and tangible wealth, and unite them in a more enduring bond of intercourse (which they neither coveted nor sought) with the nations of Europe. The object of the Turks was, to place an impassable barrier between the Christian world and themselves; then, as a measure of future expediency, to fall back upon Asia, and exterminate the nations which had harassed them, and disturbed their repose in the East; and finally, with Greece and Egypt to furnish them with manufactures, and the Bosphorus as their river channel to the Mediterranean, to retire into a life of ease and indolence. But the rising power of Russia proved a serious impediment to the realization of this dream; and the result of many a battle, fought by them with zeal, with courage, and with desperation, while its moral enlightened the Turkish sovereigns of their pregnableness, ultimately led to a total change in their governmental policy, in which the people were induced to concur. After the peace of Carlowitz—after it became self-evident that the monarchs of Christian Europe, with one or two insignificant exceptions, had organized themselves into a permanent Congress, and sworn solemnly to a league of perpetual unity and accord, in which the *arbiter dictum* of Russia should be recognized, to oppose the advance of the power of the Porte in Europe—an approach which would neither suit Russia nor Austria in their designs upon Italy, Germany, Hungary, Poland, and the lesser States which "impinged upon their ambition"—after the Porte was forced to see that Russia was cutting through her channels of intercourse with the East, that England was meeting the Cossacks from the Indian Ocean; that—Greece being already lost to it—Egypt would prove an apple of domestic discord, as well as a source of foreign contention; that, unless a more liberal policy prevailed, and an alliance was sought with the more northern States of Europe, the empire would ultimately be deprived of every avenue to the ocean except the Persian Gulf—the Porte revised its foreign code, and placed it on an entirely different basis. An extensive system of police was framed, the agents of which were ostensibly called ambassadors, whose chief duty, besides attending to their political functions, was to transmit to the Sultan all available information with respect to the commerce of the world, and every detail that appertained to the foreign and domestic trade of Christian States. By such means, Turkey advanced rapidly in the acquisition of a kind of knowledge that was designed to prove of more essential advantage than the sword. From that hour—from the peace of Carlowitz—the character of the empire underwent modification; it has been, indeed, wholly transformed. While industry and determined energy mark the progress of the people, the court has striven ever since to cultivate intimate relations with England and France, and lastly in the order of time, with the United States; with no ulterior view than, while enlarging her sphere of productiveness, of preserving her industry, her wealth, and her political existence intact. The population have been signally successful and apt in their tutelage. The merchants of the empire are proverbial for their probity and sagacity; the arts and sciences are cultivated to a reasonable extent; the lands no longer lie idle for want of tillage; the fields and vineyards are no longer barren and bare; perseverance is visible in the system of internal improvements which is conducted; while the harbors of the empire are filled with maritime fleets, either bearing away their burdens from the soil or the factory, or discharging cargoes from every port in the world. Let it be remembered, that no authentic history of Turkey has been written for twenty years. Within that period, the changes that have been wrought are more important to the welfare of the government and masses than those occurring throughout her long career of aggression and warfare.

The latest accessible returns of the commerce of the Porte are contained in the subjoined table. It will be observed that the amounts are given in Prussian thalers, which are worth at our mint 68 cents, but they readily pass in the foreign market for 70 cents.

	Imports from Turkey. Thalers.	Exports to Turkey. Thalers.
England	29,903,772	26,895,160
Austria	22,058,666	22,515,333
France	17,027,420	11,256,000
Russia	5,431,418	7,479,484
Belgium	293,330	1,036,533
Netherlands	571,360	458,000
Greece	1,312,500	333,000
United States	1,351,855	341,599
Hamburgh	694,940	57,105
Bremen	70,601	5,635
Portugal	9,946	——
Spain, Italy, Barbary States	12,000,000	15,000,000
	90,728,807 or $61,645,588	85,377,849 or $58,056,937

It may well surprise those who regard Turkey as a merely semi-barbaric State, without education, without literature, without arts and sciences, without enterprise, and without commerce, to be informed that the exports and imports of the empire, without respect to the coasting trade, amount in value to nearly a hundred and twenty millions of dollars, thus placing it in rank as the fourth commercial nation of the globe.

This trade, too, is pretty evenly balanced, the exports exceeding the imports by about $3,500,000. But to get at a more exact knowledge of the commerce of the empire, we must consider Turkey under two divisions—Turkey in Europe, and Turkey in Asia—the geographical position of its ports, and the number and religious instincts of its people. M. Ubicini has just issued a work from the Paris press, which acquaints us with many facts relating to Turkey, not hitherto attainable by travellers or collators. The following table is from the pages of his work:—

POPULATION OF TURKEY.

	Europe.	Asia.	Africa.
Mussulmen	4,550,000	12,650,000	3,800,000
Greeks	10,000,000	3,000,000	—
Catholics	600,000	260,000	—
Jews	70,000	80,000	—
Gipsies	80,000	—	—
	15,300,000	15,990,000	3,800,000
			15,990,000
			15,300,000
Grand total			35,090,000

Mussulmen, 17,200,000; Greeks, 13,000,000; Catholics, 860,000; Jews, 150,000; Gipsies, 80,000. We doubt whether, with its present elements of population and religion, European Turkey will ever become valuable to any single power, as either a producing, agricultural, or commercial country. The population, as contradistinguished, is made up of the Wallach, the Greek, and the Sclavonic, which comprises the Bulgarian, the Serbian, the Bosniak, and the Croatian elements; lastly, the Mussulman, who is greatly in the minority.

The Wallachian race, though intelligent. and brave, are enslaved and degraded, and will ever be regarded by Russia as vassals, and treated, them and their industry, as appendages of the Cossack crown.

The Bulgarians are industrious, productive, and enterprising; but here, again, there is an obstacle to their progress. They are willingly led by their priests, and their priests are loyal only to that power which pays them best.

The Turkish Greeks are, in morals, intelligence, and industry, the same in some respects, and in others the opposite, of their brethren of the Morea, or Independent Greece. They are industrious and frugal, but cannot be relied upon. Their craftiness and love of gain always render their loyalty of doubtful certainty. They consider only the present, and care not to build up a system of enterprise, the fruits of which strangers or their children are to reap, not themselves.

The Christian Albanians, outnumbered by their Mohammedan brethren, hate each other with a cordiality that precludes all reconcilement, or a unity of interests. This state of feeling is engendered by one portion being Greek in its religion, and the other Roman Catholic; one calls the other apostate; the other retorts by calling the latter regicide and neither is willing to trust their Mohammedan neighbor. Turkey has but one section of coast on the Adriatic, which furnishes a harbor for vessels, and on which a maritime city could be built with commercial advantage. That coast is the Albanian; for although two projections of territories were reserved by the Porte, in its treaties with Austria, which extend to the Adriatic, piercing the Dalmatian coast in two places, and terminating in points which some day will become great emporiums of trade, the country is under the sway of the Montenegrans of Albania, whose fierce hatred of the Turks, and easy corruption by either Austria or Russia, make these reservations of coast to Turkey of nominal or no value whatever. And with the exception of Durazza (the ancient Dyracchium), the whole western coast of Turkey is unsafe for vessels, affording neither shelter in storms, anchorage in distress, nor navigation, owing to the rocks which line the main. Hence, whatever value might attach to Durazza, as a port, with the present population of Albania, all the advantages of sea-ports along the Adriatic are entirely lost to Turkey.

Lastly, we have the Serbs, who, numbering but a million, exert an influence over the whole population of the European provinces of the Porte. They are, politically, the most important of the Christian populations, "because," says a Hungarian authority, "they are the most warlike; because universally armed; because material prosperity and prosperous indolence allow every individual to engage in warfare; and because of the influence which Serbia exercises over Bulgaria, whose 4,500,000 will follow servilely in her wake." The Serb is his own landowner. He is independent of the Porte in his relations with the world; chooses when to labor, and when to desist; trades whither inclination leads; and is just as willing to send forward his cattle, swine, and rough produce to feed the army of an enemy, provided it were paid for, as to send it to Constantinople. They acknowledge no supreme authority, and bow to none.

These characteristics of the people of the principalities, which estrange them from each other socially, render it dangerous to impose universal rules for the regulation of trade internally, or rules for its regulation externally. Every class or race pursues its own ideas, submits to no imperial dictation, threatens revolt at every act of the Porte which contemplates an interference with its trade or intercourse, and, as far as possible, owing to the dislike of each other, adopts customs and modes of business at variance with those of its neighbors.

As commercial provinces, therefore, the principalities are by no means so valuable to Turkey as they might be, if Russia and Austria were to forbear their constant intriguing with the population, the people settle down into contentedness, a feeling of unanimity and harmony of interest were cultivated, and the power of the Porte made to be felt in the civil administration of the country. We assert it, without fear of contradiction, that, from the mouth of the Danube to the Dalmatian Isles, and from Albania to the northern borders of Wallachia, there is more of social discord, antipathy of sentiment, perverseness in prejudice, and corruption of loyalty, than among the races of Peru, where eight distinct castes eternally jar, in their attempts one to assert higher descent or prerogatives than the other, and where every ennobling virtue is sacrificed to the attainment of a personal end.

The physical geography of Turkey in Europe next deserves attention. Its mountains, while they serve to separate the races, send down abundant streams, rendering the valleys among the most fertile of the earth. These valleys are numerous, and generally extend towards the great water-courses, which would seem as if nature intended it for a producing and exporting country. The rivers flow not only towards the central markets of Europe, but in greater volume and numbers towards that reservoir of waters, whence the evidences of the industry of three continents are borne away to the markets of the world—the Mediterranean. The Danube is the ventricle for Moldavia, Wallachia, Southern Hungary, a great part of Austria, for Croatia, Bosnia, Servia, two-thirds of Bulgaria, and Northern Romania; Albania stretches along the Adriatic, and her rivers pour into that sea; the rivers of Thessaly, Thrace, Macedonia, and Eastern Brumelia, either pour into the Gulf of Salonica, or into the Ægean; while the population of Roumania, Bulgaria, and Rumelia, on the south and southeast, have water communication either with the confluents of the Danube, the Danube, the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, or directly with the Ægean. Nature has done much for European Turkey, in providing fertile valleys, a rich soil even on the mountain sides, navigable rivers, and a wholesome climate; but it has done more, in pointing the courses of its rivers, which traverse the Danubian basin, the plains of Illyricum, and bear away the prizes of industry in diverse channels to the bosom of the ocean.

When we come to consider Asiatic Turkey, it is like bringing into juxtaposition the people, manners, customs, and national characteristics generally, of two antipodal countries. In the physical constitution of the population, in climate, in general pursuits, in everything, there is a want of sameness or unanimity with the races of European Turkey; which is the more remarkable, that the ægis of one government extends over all, and the work of centuries has been going on, to harmonize and to bring them both under one social system.

As will be seen by the preceding table, the population is principally Mohammedan. But only the people have changed—not the country. The glories of twenty different nations that once flourished in Western Asia, have disappeared; "flocks wandered over the tomb of Achilles and of Hector;" the thrones of Mithridates and Antiochus, and the palaces of Priam and Crœsus, are buried in the sands of ages; Tadmor stands alone in the wilderness; and the harp of Israel may no longer be heard among the cedars of Lebanon: but, if avenging destiny has crumbled the monuments of man, and hushed the lyres of David and Isaiah, it has respected the sites there of earthly greatness, and left no vestige of Almighty wrath to mar the general features of the country. The same mighty river which rolled through the capital of Assyria, and bore the ice of Armenia to the burning plains of Mesopotamia, rolls on still; the forests which sheltered the flocks of the patriarchs, afford shade to the herds of Damascus; and the wild fruits which fed the pilgrims under Moses, are shed to the pilgrim, on his way to the shrine of Mecca.

But desolation has swept over the land, in the ruin of cities, and in the forlorn condition of vast plains which once were the support of those cities. The western part of Asia Minor, as famous for its memories and legends, as Syria and the countries of the Euphrates, presents fewer indications of the great change than the more eastern portions of Asiatic Turkey. But it must be borne in mind that the Turks were the conquerors of the empire they inhabit, and not the original despoilers. They inherited the ashes of fallen kingdoms and buried cities by conquest, and repeopled them after they had become again and again the theatre of barbaric destruction and human decimation. The Saracen had lorded it for centuries over the graves of twenty nations; and every crusade of warfare, whether waged within or without, still added to the universal waste, and obliterated still more the remains of former civilization and former habitation. All that has survived, and all that is visible in the progress of Asiatic Turkey, is due to the Turk, and not to the sparing hand of time, or the hallowed awe with which the wandering Arab or the fierce Mongol would respect the graves of kings, or the vestiges of their former pomp.

Every allowance, therefore, must be made for the slow progress which the Mussulman has made in the arts, in the sciences, and in handicraft; though, for that matter, as we shall presently show, he has little excuse to ask, for, with the exception of purely modern inventions, of which two-thirds of Europe are still ignorant, he has kept pretty even pace with the rest of mankind since he has made a start.

Asiatic Turkey is divided into several pashalics, with the frontier boundaries, as now defined, only differing from what was claimed, at the time the geographers, Malte Brun and his contemporaries, gave us their works, in respect to the districts lying between the River Araxes and the Black Sea. Russia has here encroached on the empire, and is still endeavoring to obtain the northeast angle of the empire, with a view of having supreme control of the trade routes between the Bosphorus and the East, having their western termini at Batoun and Trebizond. Hence the difficulties between the Cossack emperors and the Georgians and Circassians, who inhabit these districts.

We need not pause to describe either the people or the geographical features of the pashalics of Asiatic Turkey. They are subjects with which all are supposed to be somewhat familiar. The rivers of Asia Minor are small, and are generally not navigable. They fall, some of them, into the Mediterranean, but the largest, after taking up the waters of a number of tributaries, flow into the Black Sea. The Euphrates and the Tigris, which empty into the Persian Gulf, are noble and imposing streams, and drain a large extent of country. While Turkey is enabled to retain the command of these rivers, with her splendid water-courses in Europe, no nation can exceed her in the possession of natural facilities for reaching the markets of the globe. Smyrna is the principal sea-port of Asia Minor, and is one of the most interesting cities of modern times. Though frequently destroyed by earthquakes and decimated by the plague, it rises again to opulence and importance, and seems, after each disaster, to gather both in strength and splendor. Besides being a terminus of the caravan trade with Bassorah on the Euphrates, and Odessa on the Black Sea, by which merchandise from India and Thibet, by one route, and the products of Persia and Arabia by the other, destined for the European and American markets, are brought, it is the fruit emporium of the northern and western hemispheres, and engages largely in its own manufactures. Before the earthquake of 1822, it employed 12,000 artisans in its workshops and by its looms. The concession of the Porte to the demand of Europe for the free navigation of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles, and the commercial route to India by Egypt and the Red Sea, have contributed to injure the ports of Syria and Asia Minor, as termini of the caravan trade; for many Eastern products are now either brought to the Mediterranean direct by the Isthmus of Suez, or ascend westward by the Russian routes to the Black Sea or Caspian, whence they are exported overland to Constantinople, and thence by the Baltic to a market, or are deported at Odessa, where European vessels, with a free pass for the Dardanelles or the Danube, are in waiting to receive them. But Smyrna and the Syrian ports, notwithstanding these drawbacks, do an extensive business—Smyrna with distant nations, and Alexandretta, Latakia, Tripoli, Beyrout, Seye, and Acre, with the near ports, particularly with France and Italy on the Mediterranean. The port of export for Aleppo is Latakia—the *Λαοδίκεια επὶ τῇ ϑαλάττῃ* of the Greeks, and the Laodicea ad Mare of the Romans—a city which once threatened to divert and monopolize the trade of Antioch, and whose inhabitants exhibited such resistance and endurance, as to excite the admiration of Antony, who declared it a free port. But Latakia, although it is well situated, will never again, perhaps, become a port of much consequence. Its harbor will scarce admit vessels of the lightest tonnage, owing to the accumulations of mud and drift which ages have collected in it; and, besides, the trade of Aleppo is beginning to find other outlets.

Damascus and Palmyra divide their outward trade and travel with the other Syrian ports named, of which Beyrout is the principal, although Acre and Tripoli have hitherto had a large share. Although the harbor is much inferior to those of Acre and Tripoli, its nearness to Damascus, the fertility of its adjacent plains, the enterprise of its inhabitants, and as the seat of the missionary cause in Syria, it is destined to open advantages to commerce which the others cannot count upon. Acre, to which there belong so many mournful recollections—Insular Tyre of the Phœnicians—could only boast, when Volney visited it, of one solitary merchant, who was a Greek, in the French service; and whose commercial operations, notwithstanding the command he had of the market, barely sufficed him for a decent livelihood. Under the Turkish rule, however, the city has lifted its head from the dust, and has now a tolerably extensive and profitable intercourse with the interior, and with the neighboring isles and coasts. Tripoli is cut off from the interior by unwholesome marshes, so that, were it not for its central or peculiar location, and the contiguity of Damascus, it would suffer wholly from neglect. The port of Saide (the Sidon of Scripture) is nearly choked with sand, so that vessels cannot approach close to the town; but a large local trade is transacted, which gives to the place a bustling air and a flourishing aspect.

In brief, the towns of Syria, on the Mediterranean, have been greatly augmented in their wealth and influence within the twenty years past, and are taking their places, among the exporting and importing cities of Asia, in the highest rank. The relations of the interior of Syria with the Mediterranean—of Damascus and Tadmor as emporiums of manufacture, and of

Aleppo as a caravan mart into Persia and the East—will, unless the political complexion of Turkey materially changes, ultimately contribute to make them all cities of future renown and opulence. The exports and imports of Syria may be summed up as follows, for which statistics we are indebted to a missionary statement at Beyrout:—

	Imports from		Exports to
Austria	$118,075	Austria	$71,827
Egypt	1,101,200	Egypt	906,750
France	501,100	France	489,375
Great Britain	529,050	Great Britain	46,550
Greece	9,000	Greece	18,501
Sardinia	500	Sardinia	1,081
Tuscany	676,100	Tuscany	235,014
Turkey	630,000	Turkey	350,797
			2,119,895
	$3,565,025		3,565,025
		Exports and imports	$5,684,920

Aleppo is the chief seat of Turkish commerce in Syria. Although Damascus has borne a high reputation for the excellence of its sword-blades, for the beauty of the surrounding scenery, and the hospitality of its citizens, it can lay no just claim to rivalry with Aleppo as regards either the extent of its manufactures or the variety of its trade. Lying on the principal route of the pilgrims to Mecca, it will continue to be a town held in high reverence and respect; but it is not so advantageously located as Aleppo, and does not manifest the same energy of character. Aleppo, which has passed under various names—the Χελϑών of the Greeks, the Chalybon of the ancients, and Haleb and Berœa by the Arabians—besides being the caravan dépôt of Syria, is famous for its manufacture of silver-lace, silk and cotton fabrics, and the beauty and richness of its shawls. It supplies all the fairs of Arabia; and hither are brought, by caravans, pearls and shawls from India and China, by way of Bussorah and Bagdad; camels from Arabia; cotton-stuffs and thread, morocco, leather, goats' hair, and galls, from the pashalics of Mosul, Diarbekir, Orfa, Aintab, &c.; furs, goats' hair, wax, gum, ammoniac, &c., from Vau, Erzeroum, and Kars; silk, copper, furs, and linens from Asia Minor; silk, Mocha coffee, soap, scented woods, drugs, ambergris, pearls, &c., from Arabia; rice, coffee, and Egyptian produce from Latakia; and European fabrics, watches, hardware, haberdashery, cottons and woollens of America, and the products of both hemispheres, from Smyrna and Constantinople. These are the supplies brought by the caravans. The exports of the city consist of almost every variety of the prime necessaries of life, with its essential luxuries; besides products of the forest and the soil, taken from the surrounding country, which are partly exchanged for the hogs of Servia, the herds of Wallachia, or the produce exchanged at Cyprus. The imports, of which cottons, linens, and woollens form the chief elements, are confined to no particular or specified articles, but are as general as the articles which obtain a market in Smyrna or Constantinople.

Bussorah, the Turkish port for the trade of the Persian Gulf, is a city of aspiring pretensions. Until recently, Bushire had been the chief entrepôt of the Euphrates for the traffic of the Persian Gulf with the Indies and Hindostan; but within the last three or four years the former has gained more in commercial importance than it had for a quarter of a century preceding. The proposition made by Great Britain to construct a railway from a point at the head of the Mediterranean, in Syria, to a point on the Euphrates near the site of ancient Thapsacus, now called El Der, to connect with a line of steamers to run between El Der and Bussorah, induced even Turkish indolence to enter with ardor into speculations, such as the fitting up of storehouses in Bussorah, and the building of new piers where they were required. As the scheme has not been abandoned, at least ostensibly, Bussorah is receiving many additions in consequence; and vessels which had hitherto plied to Bushire, from the Indian seas, now enter and discharge at the former place. The shipping of Bussorah is owned and manned in most part by Arabians, merchant residents of Muscat. The exports consist of Turkish produce, Turkish manufactures, and produce and fabrics brought down the Danube to the Black Sea, whither they are brought by caravan to the Persian Gulf. But Arabian spices, drugs, gum, and galls, together with bullion, raw silk, &c., enter largely into the export traffic. Arabian dates, sent from this port in one year, have amounted to fifteen or twenty thousand tons! The imports comprise many of the richest species of Eastern handicraft—dyes from India, shawls and silks from China, spicery from the Indian Isles, and products of the soil, the forest, and the loom, from all parts of the East.

From Bussorah there are three main caravan routes, besides those which intercept the through travels. One of these main routes, as we have stated, is to Aleppo; another terminates at Skutari, opposite Constantinople, on the sea of Mamara; and the third terminates at Trebizond, on the Black Sea. The principal routes which intersect with these great through travels are those which terminate at Ispahan in Persia, Tiflis in Russia, Hamadan in Persia, and those which connect pashalic with pashalic, and city with city, throughout Asiatic Turkey. Turkish enterprise has united the waters of the Tigris and Euphrates, by several canals, in the Babylonian Valley, so that, in the completion of other internal improvements undertaken elsewhere in Asiatic Turkey, in a few years no lack need be experienced for safe and speedy means of transportation for the inland commerce of the country, or in its relations with the world without.

We come now to consider the commerce of the Turkish ports on the Black Sea. The Turkish territories do not extend further north than about the 42d degree of north latitude. The port of Bantoun is about ten or twelve miles south of this line, in lat. 41° 40′, and long. 41° 50′. Trebizond, on the south coast of the Euxine, is probably 125 miles from Bantoun by air line, though 150 by land or water carriage. Samsun, on the same coast, is still further west, being 180 or 190 miles from Trebizond; and still farther west are the towns of Sinope and Hereclea, which, as seaports, are the least important of them all. Hereclea (or Erekli), Sinope, and Samsun, are the ports at which merchandise destined for the interior of Asia Minor is entered; Trebizond is the port at which merchandise designed for Central Asia, Georgia, and Persia, is entered; and Bantoun may be regarded as the Turkish port for the shipment of Circassian slaves to the Ottoman capital. Of Hereclea, Sinope, and Samsun, little need be said beyond what has been related of Smyrna. These ports receive the shipments of the Danube, and by overland carriage they are conveyed to Smyrna, Costamboul, &c., and are disposed of for the coast trade or local consumption, or are transported directly into the interior, and sold or exchanged in the inland market-towns of Asia Minor. But Trebizond is the most important city for its commerce, foreign and domestic, in the empire. The merchandise entering here is dispatched eastward by two caravan routes, one by way of Ezeroum, across the Pylaen Mountains, and the other by way of Rais and Erivan. These routes, after crossing the mountains, converge to a point, and are united in one at the town of Naksivan in Persia. The first mart, after leaving Naksivan, is Tabreez, where the goods are unpacked, and offered for sale. Hence the merchants pursue their route to Teheran, and finally to Ispahan. Trebizond supplies all the mountainous countries of the Caspian, Georgia, and two-thirds of Persia (indeed, the whole of Persia, with the exception of the East-India goods imported through Bussorah and Bushire), and a great part of western Caubul and Beelochistan. Some conception of the importance of Trebizond to the cotton-fabric trade of England, may be gathered from the fact, that ten million dollars' worth of British muslins, calicoes, &c., enter it annually, of which eight millions' worth are forwarded across the mountains, seven millions' worth being shipped alone to Persia. Russia has made extraordinary progress in her cotton-loom ability, and casts an anxious eye towards this field of cotton consumption, which England and Turkey have in common. Russia seeks to impair the commercial value of Trebizond; and England to maintain a policy of peace, and therefore monopoly, which the impending question between the Cossack and the sultan may bring to a fatal termination for the interest of one or the other of the parties.

Trebizond is the best-situated port on the Black Sea for the Eastern trade. It invites such products and manufactures as the United States can, in an eminent degree, supply. John P. Brown, Esq., late of the American legation at Constantinople, has had access to official documents, relating to the trade of the empire, to whom we are indebted for the subjoined statistics:

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF IMPORT AT TREBIZOND—ANNUAL AVERAGE.

Manufactures (for Trebizond)	$504,000	Military stores (in peace)	$30,000
Ditto (for Persian market)	7,876,000	Cordage	18,000
Sugar	174,000	Russia canvas	12,000
Coffee	108,000	Wax	24,000
Beer	60,000	Indian corn (which might be greatly increased in amount)	9,000
Tobacco	12,000		
Salt	24,000	Wood for building purposes	6,000
Sugar, drugs, &c., for Georgia	132,000	Spirits	35,000
Hardware	198,000	Soap	19,000
Iron	98,000	Cotton (no market)	——
Coal	18,000	Steel	7,000

Every article here mentioned, the United States is prepared to supply. The exports consist principally of, per annum:—

Silk	$1,300,000	Nuts	$390,000
Copper	103,000	Linen (Turkish and Asiatic)	105,000
Tobacco (native)	72,000	Persian tobacco	150,000
Saffron	500,000	Boxwood	35,000
Shawls	75,000	Galls	11,000
Wax	72,000	Leeches	40,000

Almonds, leather, dyes, drugs, fruits, opium, &c., articles which we need, and are willing to exchange for.

The imports of Trebizond, fully detailed, amounted

	Francs.
Last year to	54,000,000
The exports to	15,000,000
	69,000,000
Being, in United-States currency, about	$11,500,000

It would seem that Russia, gigantic as are her schemes for obtaining a monopoly of the Asiatic overland or interior trade, is not satisfied to accomplish them by halves. The design of diverting from Trebizond much of the trade which it now transacts on foreign account, and particularly with Persia, may result in seriously crippling that port, and the commerce of the Turkish empire, unless the sultan abolishes the imposition of the high tariff which is still levied on goods entering the Trebizond custom-house. His recent treaty with the Hanse Towns is a fair step toward ridding himself of the prejudices of his predecessors, in the matter of trammeling trade with high custom-house exactions and port duties. But the reform must go farther than this; for every concession yet made by the government to the demands of the commerce of the empire, has been met by still more liberal concessions on the part of the czar.

In a former article* in the "Review," we endeavored to shew what were the designs of Russia with regard to the central and eastern Asiatic trade routes; and events since occurring have tended to place those surmises beyond a doubt. No profitable, or, indeed, expedient commercial overland channels between Europe and the East can be opened farther north than the southern borders of Kirgus. Hitherto, Russia has had no depots or entrepôts of any consequence, further south than Astrachan, at the confluence of the Volga with the Caspian, and Odessa (being principally a wheat market), on the Black Sea, at the mouth of the Dneister. Recently, immense store-houses have been erected at Tiflis, in the Georgian territory, and at Kalé, at the mouth of the Danube; and the Austrian Steam Company have commenced running a line of steamers direct from Kalé to Bantoum, omitting Trebizond in the way, with no other view than of making Tiflis a terminus for the carrying trade of the East, which heretofore has passed through Trebizond. Tiflis is as near to the markets of Persia as Trebizond, and nearer to the markets of central and farther Asia. Besides, commodities passing through it will avoid much of the mountain-crossing, which they now undergo by being sent by the way of Ezeroun and Erivan. Turkey must look well to its interests, in the conflict which has taken place, lest it lose the commerce of Trebizond, if not its nationality. England in this emergency can only look on in silence. If it moves at all, it will be in favor of that party which will afford its cotton interests most advantages hereafter.

It remains for us to speak of the Danube, as the recipient of thirty rivers, and the great internal water-course of Europe, for reaching the Black Sea. By canal and railway improvements, completed by Austria, Bavaria, France, and the German states, the Danube has an immediate connection with all the principal cities of the continent, and is every year made more available in conducting the products of the northern and southern hemispheres to the markets of each. It reaches the Euxine by three mouths, on the principal of which (the Soulineh) stands the city of Galacz, in Moldavia. Notwithstanding the anti-commercial character of the Moldavians, Galacz might, from its peculiar location, become one of the largest entrepôts in Europe. Not only the commodities which come down from Austria Proper, Transylvania, Hungary, and the principalities, but much of the produce of Southern Russia and the manufactures of France, England, and Germany, find their outlet to a market through Galacz. Here again, we trace the effect of Russian intrigue. Instead of Trebizond being mainly benefited by Galacz, that city contributes all in its power to further the interests of Kalé, which the Austrian Steam Company are not backward in forwarding, so far as they are concerned.

---

* China—its Commerce.

Little more may be said of Turkey and its commerce. There is a struggle now between the sultan and the czar, the end of which we cannot foresee, neither can the aspect of the sequel be foreshadowed. But, result as it may, Turkey must adopt the free-trade doctrine and reduce its port duties, ere it can successfully compete with Russia in drawing off the Black-Sea trade to pass through its ports. It must, at the same time, remodel its system of government in the principalities; but, more essential than all, it must invite English or American artisans, operatives, and mechanics to enter its factories and workshops, to command its ships, and control its bazaars, until the nation is fully and wholly instructed; when it may, by the quality of the soil, the wholesomeness of the climate, the productiveness of the country, and its geographical situation, defy the artifices of the Cossack, or of the world, to divert trade from its natural channels.

ART. II.—INDIAN SUPERSTITIONS.

It may be said of all the questions that engage the attention of philosophical minds, that their investigation has a tendency, more or less influential, to impart moral or intellectual improvement to the inquirer. Man, as a moral being, has the singular faculty of deducing either good or evil from the same subject; and whether he educes the one or the other, depends upon the predominant disposition of the reasoner. Of no subject is this remark predicated with greater truth and fullness, than that of pagan superstitions. The question of the leading characteristic—or rather of the leading lesson taught by pagan idolatry and by the protean shapes it has assumed, has been hotly disputed by religious and infidel controversialists. Without at all entering into this controversy, we may be permitted to say that, in our judgment, no man—no inquiring mind—can enter into a philosophic consideration of the prominent topics that properly grow out of this *subject* without being struck with its significancy, and both improved and entertained. It frequently happens in mercantile life, that the mind that has grown weary and perplexed with the questions affecting the material interests of man in his social relations, very cheerfully, if but momentarily or occasionally, turns for relief or relaxation to the consideration of subjects as foreign from the burden of his every-day thinkings as he well can find.

Was it not the *wise* remark—if it was not the wise, was it not at least the remark—of Pythagoras, that the cultivation of any nation or people might be ascertained correctly, and known, by seeing how far subjects affecting the *past* or the *future* predominated over those of the *present* in their intellectual investigations? Every man knows that it is the characteristic of savage and childish minds to be absorbed in attention to things near and real, to the exclusion of the remote and the ideal. Thus it may, therefore, be truly said of the cultivated and the wise, that in no respect are these qualities more clearly indicated than in their love of the disinterested and the far. This feeling has been seized upon by philosophers and poets, both ancient and modern, to magnify human nature.

The oldest superstition of which we have any account is that of Sabianism.

They believed in the existence of one God, but, nevertheless, paid adoration to the stars. This adoration was thus rendered because they considered the stars the representatives of an unseen divine influence, controlled by the one God. They believed, also, that the wicked would be punished for nine thousand years, and then restored to favor.

That human beings should be prone to render adoration to an unseen influence—an unreal and hidden power—is one of the puzzles of infidelity; and, indeed, is a matter of perplexity to all human philosophy. It is extremely difficult to account for the universal spread of mythological worship among all nations beyond the pale of christian knowledge, upon any well-ascertained principle of philosophy, and especially is it difficult to do so otherwise than upon the truth of the existence and the necessity of a true worship. Few subjects are more complex, or more interesting. What sound or safe conclusions is cautious wisdom to draw from this universal prevalence of idolatry? Are any to be drawn? Are the practices, or rather the symbols, of heathen worship veracious witnesses of any one truth, of value to human philosophy? Can human investigation ever solve the question why a blind worship has been permitted, and so long permitted? Is there any relation, and if any, what is it, between a false and a true worship? Does a false worship form any link in the chain of argument supporting the proof of the true? What is to be the probable fate of pagans, upon the supposition that their worship is untrue and ill directed?

These are all questions of grave import. Christian writers say that nothing can be plainer than that long after the building of Babel, and long after the dispersion consequent upon the confusion of tongues, the history, or rather the memory—if indications is not yet the proper word—of the ark and its inhabitants may be distinctly discovered in the symbols, and are imaged in the superstitious rites, of subsequent yet primitive idolatry. The first departure from the true knowledge of the one First Cause, arising from the natural tendency of mankind to worship the palpable and the near, began by conferring divine attributes upon the inhabitants of the ark. Here the link became first broken. The *first* parents of any people sustain a peculiar relation to that people. The *first* human being, after the knowledge of the cause of his existence had been lost, would be a subject of ceaseless wonder and admiration to all. Is it not quite natural, under these circumstances, that this weird and bewildered wonder and astonishment should in process of time ripen, if we may say so, into a pardonable idolatry?

It may be instructive to inquire what is the chief characteristic of heathen worship? *Heathen* worship, however, is not a term justly applicable to all false systems of worship—Jews and Mohammedans are not included among heathen nations. The term pagan is derived from *pagi—pagani*—small villages. When Constantine prohibited the public solemnization of heathen rites in the cities subject to his rule, their votaries at once retired to the small villages called *pagi;* and hence the name of pagan, and it became with the Christians the distinctive appellation of all idolators. The term pagan, therefore, does not properly apply to the Jews, nor paganism to the Jewish system of worship, although a false system upon the supposition of the truth of the christian system; neither do those terms apply to the Turks or to the Mohammedan religion, since the Mohammedans, like the Jews, worship the same one God.

Still, so far as affects the question, whose elucidation we regard as of much interest to the philosophical mind, they may be well included, and the inquiry may be yet important to ascertain what is the chief characteristic of all false systems of religion. Is it not that they all repose upon the principle that there is an unseen and invisible cause, capable of affording solace and succor to man's inner nature? In other words, is it not spirit yearning for spiritual support? This, if a truth, is of the first consequence.

Human intelligence, when left alone to grope in the darkness occasioned by its own limited perfections, has a natural—or is it not rather an unavoidable—tendency, to wander *from* the truth. In especial reference to the subject under consideration, does not the unvarying history of the antique world furnish proof that man, unaided by exterior influences, never approaches *towards* the truth? To know and to appreciate moral truth, which is but an emanation from the perfect intelligence of the First Cause, there must be human effort, human self-denial, restraint of natural propensities. This is nothing other than a check put upon accustomed flow of natural laws. Whoever follows nature's promptings will be led into hideous moral darkness. It is thus we read the history of the past.

It is thus that we account also for the substitution that accrued, in process of time, of the symbols of ancient paganism in the place of the substantive truths they previously represented. It is thus we account for the mythological degeneracy observed among rude and ignorant nations, running into the most revolting and heterogeneous compound of absurdities and brutalized and brutalizing fooleries, alike disgraceful to human nature and humbling to human pride.

Another peculiarity of false religions is the intervention of third parties, between the unseen power to be propitiated and the persons to be benefited. Jenyns, one of the old English poets, says,—

"Grant these inventions of the crafty priest;
Yet such inventions never could subsist,
Unless some glimmering of a future state
Were with the mind coeval and innate."

It was a remark of Sir William Temple, that "different climates produce in men, by a different mixture of the humors, a different and an unequal course of imaginations and passions."

The Mohammedan religion is remarkable in one particular, which distinguishes it from other false religions. The doctrine of the Islam, in the opinion of its votaries, *originated* with Mohammed. The origin of other false religions is lost in the dim distance of antiquity. Tradition is one of the main supports of a religious faith. What is new is therefore thought to be false, and what has the support of tradition is greedily received, however opposed to the principles of reason and good sense.

The religious writers of every ancient nation delight in representing their systems of worship as originating in the earliest times. In this respect, the Chinese run back to a period so distant, as to shame all more youthful pedigrees. They claim to trace the origin of their religious records to a period of time many millions of years beyond the creation of the world as recorded by Moses. One of the most ancient nations of the world was the Chaldeans. Josephus has given us some extracts from their earliest writers. In connection with scriptural history, their traditionary mythology is worthy of consideration. They believe that a monster by the name of Oannes, wrote a book giving an account of creation, stating that the world was first water and darkness, and that Omeroca, a woman, was the ruling power; and that she was destroyed by another power; and that this other power cut her into two parts, and formed the earth out of one part, and the heaven out of the other; that he then, seeing the earth was uninhabited, directed some other power to cut off his head, collect the blood, mix it with earth in order to form men and animals, and afterwards finish the residue of creation. They believe that the first power rose out of the Red Sea; and in some place near where Babylon was afterwards built, began the important work of creation.

The careful historical reader well knows that religious errors (by which we mean to designate the mythology of any nation) have their counterpart in those errors that are political. The reason, if there be any reason, why we should not look into and examine the gross idolatries of the earlier inhabitants of earth, applies with equal force against the examination of the political errors of the Greeks and Romans, or of any other nation. There are to be found in the feudal system for example, political principles, and political practices, as foreign from the true science of human rights and the true structure of social organization, as are the mythological cosmogony of the Hindoos or Chaldeans from the true history of creation as found in the ever-enduring muniments of the Jewish lawgiver. The time has not yet arrived in the history of man, when the questions, whether religious rites were originally invented by crafty men, in order to make the prone credulity of the vulgar contribute to their own personal advantage; or whether they arose from any principle in human nature that may be considered (what Mr. Jenyns calls) "innate;" or whether they are the offspring of one original revelation, corrupted in its descent down the stream of time, as it received additions or supposed improvements from a human fountain,—do not have a peculiar charm for all minds that take any interest, and that expect to reap any benefit from the examination of the wanderings of the mind in the search of truth of whatever character. Truths of the greatest advantage to mankind have arisen out of the company of gross errors, after a long and well-fought contest. In how much is the true science of chemistry indebted to the errors of alchemy? Besides all which, there is an ever-burning curiosity in man to inquire into the cause of things. And this inquiry ever delights him. It is one of the original springs of his progressive improvement. It is the ability to gratify this wish, by rising from the knowledge of one cause to the knowledge of another cause, and thence to deduce a natural law, which distinguishes man from brutes, and elevates him in the scale of intelligence. Until many natural laws are known, and named and known by these names as arbitrary designations, man is under a necessity to employ figures of speech—to use symbolical images to paint other conceptions coming into use, or rising into knowledge. It is for this reason, that all the early systems of religion are intensely allegorical. These symbols, now utterly senseless to our view, doubtless pointed to some natural phenomena, or to some derived or imparted truth of history or revelation, that has departed from human memory, so that nothing remains for us to examine but the absurd symbol.

A very ingenious gentleman, by the name of Jacob Bryant, wrote a work, in 1768, entitled "Analysis of Ancient Mythology, wherein an attempt is made to divest tradition of fable, and to reduce truth to its original purity." Mr. Esdaile, Mr. Bryant's biographer, says of this work, "At the same time that we admit that imagination has often supplied the place of facts, and confident assertion been substituted for authentic history, it is yet difficult to say whether the ingenuity, the learning, or the industry of the author are most conspicuous. We scarcely know any work in our language whose defects and whose excellences are so conspicuous, nor any to which we could allow so many abatements on the score of inconclusive reasonings, and yet have so much left to challenge our unqualified admiration. It exhibits so many new views, and so many elucidations of obscure transactions, that no man who wishes to be acquainted with the more remote history of our species, can safely be ignorant of the Analysis of Ancient Mythology."

It is the theory of Mr. Bryant, that the deluge, and the historical incidents of the deluge, constitute the original standpoint, whence emanated the many religious rites of the ignorant and superstitious posterity of Noah; and that traces of this event and its history, are to be found very distinctly in the sacred ceremonies of Greece and Egypt.

"We may reasonably suppose," contends Mr. Bryant, "that the particulars of this extraordinary event would be gratefully commemorated by the patriarch himself, and transmitted to every branch of his family; that they were made the subjects of domestic converse, where the history was often renewed, and ever attended with a reverential awe and horror, especially in those who had been witnesses of the calamity, and had experienced the hand of Providence in their favor. In process of time, when there was a falling off from the truth, we might farther expect that a person of so high a character as Noah, so particularly distinguished by the Deity, could not fail of being reverenced by his posterity; and, when idolatry prevailed, that he would be one among the first of the sons of men to whom divine honors would be paid. Lastly, we might conclude that these memorials would be interwoven in the mythology of the Gentile world; and that there would be continued allusions to those ancient occurrences, in the rites and mysteries as they were practiced by the nations of the earth."

The India of the Romans was as large as the whole of Europe. They placed Persia on the one side, and the deserts of Tartary on the other. "Within these boundaries lay the hills of Tibet; the valley of Cashmere; all the territories in which the ancients placed the Indo-Scythians, Nepaul, Bootan, Assam, Camroop, Siam, Ava, Aracan, and the adjacent kingdoms as far as the China of the Hindoos, and the Sin of the Arabian geographers, the entire western peninsula of Hindostan, and the island of Ceylon."

The Rev. Messrs. E. Nott, L. Beecher, J. Edwards, Jeremiah Day, H. Humphrey, Mark Hopkins, S. North, Joel Parker, B. Tyler, B. Sears, R. Babcock, J. Bates, N. Bangs, H. J. Clark, J. Carnahan, Asa Mahan, E. W. Gilbert, Benjamin Hale, Silas Totten, and the Hon. A. Hasbrouck, say that Mr. Caleb Wright, "visited India a few years since, to qualify himself for lecturing on the manners and customs of the people of that country; and the lectures he has since published give evidence of the carefulness of his observations, and of his faithfulness in description," . . . . . and that "he lectured in seven of the churches in this city [New Haven] to large and highly gratified audiences."

"It is the opinion of some eminent geographers," says Mr. Caleb Wright, "that India, under the name of Tarshish, was known in the days of Solomon, and celebrated as the land of spices, gold, and precious stones; but whether it be the Tarshish of the ancients or not, it has for a long time been justly regarded with great interest. Here, vast and powerful empires have successively sprung up and flourished, while Europe was in a state of barbarism. Long before Christianity shed its light upon the world, India was the land of the sciences and the arts. At the present time, however, its prominent characteristics are ignorance, poverty and superstition."

Mr. Wright was a personal observer of several Hindoos who sought to propitiate the god of their idolatry by bodily suffering. This is a very common error of all superstitious minds. They fail to discriminate between a moral self-denial which is proper and commendable, and personal suffering which is improper and useless. All moral self-denial has a healthful tendency, because it is regulated by the great christian law of temperance in all things, but when it is pushed beyond its just limits, and especially when merit is expected to be deduced from those sufferings of the body which interfere with the discharge of the many social *duties* of life, that lie upon mankind by both natural and divine laws, a capital error has been made. Mr. Wright saw a devotee at the river Ganges, in Hindostan, attending a religious festival, who had held his left arm in an upright position so long, with the view to propitiate his god, that the muscles had lost all power of contraction, and the arm remained rigidly in that unnatural position.

He saw another in the city of Benares, with *both* arms entirely rigid, and fixed in an upright position, so that they were quite an incumbrance to him. He first began by holding his idol above his head, and continued to do this until nature accommodated itself to his foolish superstition, and put it out of his power to use his arms at all. But he became the object of the tender compassion of less devout persons, and was by them fed and tended as one full of the favor, and possessed of the entire affection, of the propitiated divinity that he adored at such distinguished cost.

The Hindoos claim to be the most devout people in the world. The number of their gods amounts to over three hundred millions. Nor are they at all disposed to live harmonious lives among themselves, but indulge in passions the most vile and murderous, and in practices the bare recital of which, says Mr. Wright, would "excite the utmost horror and disgust."

As a consequence of this immorality of the gods, the people are, as a general rule, divested of all those principles that characterize a virtuous, honest, or industrious nation. They are steeped in vice, and are utterly without faith in human virtue.

The goddess Kali, is a woman. She is represented as having four arms, of a dark blue color, and as trampling her husband under her feet; as in one hand holding the bloody head of a giant, and in the other, a destroying sword. "Her long, disheveled hair reaches to her feet," says Mr. Wright, "her tongue protrudes from her distorted mouth, and her lips, eyebrows, and breast, are stained with the blood of the victims of her fury, whom she is supposed to devour by thousands. Her ear-ornaments are composed of human carcasses. The girdle about her waist consists of the bloody hands of giants slain by her in single combat, and her necklace is composed of their skulls. This monster divinity is one of the most popular objects of Hindoo worship. She calls forth the shouts, the acclamations, and the *free-will* (?) offerings, of myriads of infatuated worshipers. Her temples are continually drenched with the blood of victims; even human victims are occasionally sacrificed to her. In 1828 the Rajah of the Goands sacrificed twenty men at one time as the promised reward of her supposed assistance in a single enterprise."—*Lectures on India*, p. 61.

The husband of this goddess, called Shiva, is one of the principal divinities of the Hindoos. He is represented as having eight arms, and three eyes, one of which is in the center of the forehead. His description in other respects is equally fantastical. He is worshiped principally upon festival occasions, occurring usually in the month of April. His principal temple is in the vicinity of Calcutta. On the occasion of these festivals, the people leave their usual occupations, and assemble in crowds around the idols representing this divinity, and dance tumultuously to the sound of rude instruments. They then erect a platform about ten feet high, and from this elevated position, the worshipers throw themselves upon a large number of knives, so arranged upon the ground as to lacerate the flesh without occasioning violent deaths. The object is to wound without killing. Thousands escape unhurt, but many are cruelly wounded. Self-torture seems to be the chief object of these idolatrous rites, and blood the chief token and representative of this torturing worship. Some insert knives, or other sharp instruments, through the arm, leg, or tongue, and then, with rods of iron or wood placed through these apertures in the raw flesh, they are kept green and festering. Some insert living serpents through these holes made in the tongue. Others, not content with this private demonstration of their devotional feelings, erect an upright post upon which they fix a long lever, to one end of which they affix ropes. By these ropes they control the other end, upon which the devotees are suspended. This latter has iron hooks for the accommodation of devout persons. These iron hooks are inserted in the flesh of the devout. The worship consists in having the hooks inserted into the more muscular parts of the back and arms, and in being by them elevated into the air and swung around many feet from the ground. "Thousands and tens of thousands," says Mr. Wright, "are thus cruelly tortured on these machines."

Mr. Wright visited the temple of the god Shiva, erected near Allahabad. The worship at this temple consists in bringing bottles filled with holy water of the river Ganges, and in breaking them against the sides of the edifice, and in thus spilling the water near the temple. Besides the bottles of holy water, there is also to be contributed along with them a few copper coins. So devotional have been the worshipers, that the priests of the temple live in ease and luxury, as it is their business to take due care of the copper coin bestowed upon the god; and the temple, in process of time, has become surrounded by a high mound, consisting of broken bottles. One of the effects of this false system of religion, is the number of useless characters, called priests, devotees, or mendicants. There are in Hindostan, hundreds of thousands of them. They are not only not producers, but are pests upon society. Under the impulse of a mistaken religious notion, that it is pleasing to some idol to forsake a useful life of industry, they abandon, along with the duties of industry, the principles of honesty. They often leave their families to be provided for by the charity of others or to starve, and become either priests or devotees, or, what is worse, mendicants.

A mendicant is a much more exalted character, however, than the name would seem to imply. Persons of this order reverse, in their own cases, all the usual laws of social intercourse. The law of social intercourse that requires tasteful, nay, even ornamental, personal decoration, the mendicant reverses, and puts himself into habiliments the coarsest and the filthiest he can find, and for ornaments, wears upon his head masses of hair from other animals, decorated with the bones of his dead brethren, and with artificial snakes. They profess a more than human sanctity, and a more than human compassion. They carry with them brooms, to sweep the ground for the tramp of their feet, in order to avoid killing the insects that might otherwise be destroyed by incautious steps. So much tenderness of heart and such entire self-abnegation, and such a surrender of all the valued things of life, cannot fail, and does not fail, to elicit from the people from whom they solicit the charity of food, a high degree of attention and consideration. There is a sect of mendicants who worship the idol Krishna. This god during his sojourn on earth was very partial to the milkmaids. Hence these mendicants dress as milkmaids. They conform to this dress as a matter of personal discomfort in order to please this idol, who has the reputation with them of having married no fewer than sixteen thousand of this milkmaid class of the population.

Upon the subject of dancing, Mr. Wright is to be read with some grains of caution. In the earlier part of his work he states that dancing around the idol, to the noise of various instruments, is the accustomed practice of the devout worshipers among this people. He afterwards says, "Dancing is deemed so disreputable by the Hindoos, that none engage in it but the most dissolute and abandoned." After having made this remark, he then proceeds to philosophize upon it. The conclusion he deduces will not, we think, be held to be always and universally true. "Here," says he, "as in other countries, there appears to be an intimate connection between dancing and licentiousness."

"Among the customs of the Hindoos, there is one called dherna—'If a man demands satisfaction from his neighbor for some grevious offence—if a creditor determines to pursue extreme measures with his debtor to obtain what is due to him—if a relative has been cheated by another out of his patrimony or his rights, and wishes to exact them from him, they respectively take the poinard or a cup of poison in their hand, and knowing that the offending party is at home, they sit down at his door in dherna. That moment the defendant within is considered under arrest. He cannot touch food so long as his accuser continues to fast; and should he not come to terms, but drive, by his obstinacy, the plaintiff to despair, and allow him to use the dagger or drink the poison, his blood rests upon his head. This may be termed the ordeal; their mode of determining doubtful questions of law—their system of duelling—their *dernier resort.*' "—*Lectures*, 118.

It has been contended by many very sound philosophers that the civilization of any people might be safely indexed by the treatment the female portion of society receive, and by the respect with which they are treated. If this be true, the Hindoos would rank very low in the scale. The education of females is prohibited upon principles of well-settled social policy. Hindoos say that the education of women stands in the way of the perfection of their character as abject slaves of the male population. Females have not a word to say with respect to the selection of their husbands, and are transferred like cattle, often to the highest bidder. It follows that success in courtship wholly depends upon the length of the wooer's purse, and thus it frequently happens that men of advanced years marry wives of ten and twelve years of age.

The highest written authority in Hindostan, the Shaster of the Hindu "declares that the supreme duty of a wife is to obey the mandate of her husband. Let the wife who wishes to perform sacred ablution, wash the feet of her lord and drink the water, for the husband is to the wife greater than Vishnoo. If a man goes on a journey, his wife shall not divert herself by play, nor shall she see any public show, nor shall laugh, nor shall dress herself in jewels and fine clothes, nor shall she see dancing, nor hear music, nor shall she sit at the window, nor shall ride out, nor shall behold anything choice or rare, but shall fasten well the house-door and remain private, and shall not eat any dainty food and shall not blacken her eyes with powder, and shall not view her face in a mirror; she shall never exercise herself in any such agreeable employment during the absence of her husband, ... and shall not go out of the house without the consent of her husband, and shall act according to the orders of her husband, and shall not eat until she has served him."

It has often happened in the history of man that the legislative authority of a country may enact very stringent laws, and the moral code may inculcate very rigid precepts of virtue, and yet there may be wanting in the governed that submissiveness so commendable in all social organization. We often find, even in those communities most highly advanced in the scale of social order, a power behind the throne greater than the throne itself; so it is not to be questioned, that even in Hindostan there are instances where these rigid regulations are not always obeyed to the very letter, and where their enforcement would draw down upon the head of the legal tyrant, a resistance not upon all occasions very quietly quelled.

Every reader of Eastern history knows that Hindoo mothers throw their infants into the water of the river Ganges, in order to propitiate some deity, and to save them from the hard destiny that too surely awaits them in maturer years.

The Thugs of India are a class of ferocious devotees who destroy human life by strangling their victims for the double purpose of booty and idol worship. The divinity of their idolatry is supposed to take delight in the death struggles of the strangled victims of their barbarity. This divinity is supposed by them to indicate, by occult signs, the particular victims whose death-struggle would impart to him satisfaction. Hence, these occult signs have risen to the dignity of a system. No matter how favorable may be the occasion, and no matter how wealthy may be the party, they never proceed to fulfill the duties of their religion by strangling, unless the signs are favorable.

Parties of these religionists travel in company, some as disguised merchants, others as ordinary travelers, and others as persons of distinction in pursuit of pleasure. They seem to hold no intercourse with each other, but are all, nevertheless, led by the one motive, and under the control of the one ruling mind. This ruling mind is under the control of the signs, as furnished by the divinity. If an intended victim is the possessor of a sacred cow, his life is spared until he can be dispossessed of it. If these religious assassins are about to proceed in an attempt of some difficulty, and a dog shakes his head ominously, the attempt is at once abandoned, as they consider that this signal of the dog proceeds from their divinity. If a traveler in the very grasp of the Thugs, happens to sneeze, his life is immediately spared, because they regard that as a divine sentence of prohibition put upon their proceedings. The fighting of cats, if heard in the early part of the night, is regarded as a good omen, but if in the latter part, a bad omen. But this evil omen may be dissipated by the party gargling the mouth with sour milk. The noise of the fighting of jackals, is regarded as a very unfavorable token, and as a divine intimation that the party had better remove to another portion of the country. The noise of birds, the actions of animals, the fall of trees or leaves, the action of the clouds, the noise of thunder, all enter into the religious philosophy of their system. The color of the skin, the squint of the eye, the conformation of the body, the color of the clothing, and, indeed, every thing that has motion, form principles of action; since the divinity they worship uses them all to indicate his divine pleasure.

They are in the habit of stopping in all public places and highways near towns, where travelers pass. Arriving at villages, they generally enter them in straggling parties of three or four, as if by accident, and without any previous concert, for the purpose of learning whether any persons of distinction or wealth are about to go upon a journey, either of pleasure or of profit. Sometimes they are accompanied by children of ten or twelve years of age, who are made to perform many menial offices at the same time that they are inducted in the secrets of their horrid profession. They also serve the purpose of preventing suspicion from being attracted to them as persons of this dangerous calling. Many of them are well skilled in arts of polished life, and at once ingratiate themselves into the confidence of those upon whom a watch is set, find out their purposes and the period of their departure, and the sums of money likely to be carried with them. These become their ready victims, when the occasion serves. They either travel with them or follow after them, being in concert with accomplices; and when the propitious omen arrives, one of the number, by casting a rope around the neck of the victim, at once secures and dispatches him. After the death of the victim, he is usually buried at the depth of three or four feet below the surface of the earth, being placed with his face downwards.

After the victim is deprived of life by strangling, they farther render a religious service to the divinity, by mutilating the dead body—by inflicting gashes in the flesh, and disjointing the limbs.

"There is reason to believe," says Mr. Williams, "that from the time of the conquest of Mysore by the English, in 1799 to 1807, the practice in that part of India reached its height, and that hundreds of persons were annually destroyed."

The magistrate of Chittoor made the following report to the authorities:—"I believe that some of the Phanisgars have been concerned in about two hundred murders; nor will this estimate appear extravagant, if it be remembered that murder was their profession—frequently their only means of gaining a subsistence. Every man of fifty years of age has, probably, been actively engaged during twenty-five years of his life in murder; and on the most moderate computation, it may be reckoned that he has made one excursion a year, and met, each time, with ten victims,"

It is almost incredible to hear Mr. Wright's account of the amounts of money and other valuables, offered upon the altar of idols, upon the occasion of their festivals.*

The majority of the people, both rich and poor, contribute the half of their earnings to their false gods, in the shape of offerings. He gives one well-authenticated instance of one native giving, in this way, eighty-thousand pounds of sweetmeats, eighty-thousand pounds of sugar, a thousand suits of clothing, a thousand suits of silk garments, a thousand offerings of rice, together with plantains and other fruit. "On another occasion," says Mr. Wright, "a wealthy native has been known to expend *thirty thousand pounds, sterling*, on the offerings, the observances, and the exhibition of a single festival, and upwards of ten thousand pounds annually ever afterwards, to the termination of his life." . . . . "In the city of Calcutta alone, at the lowest and most moderate estimate, *it has been calculated*, that half a million, at least, is annually expended on the celebration of the Durg, a Pujah festival."

Mr. Thompson, a Baptist missionary, saw on one occasion, more than three hundred thousand pilgrims assembled at Hurdwar, to bathe at the place where Brahma, the creator of the world, is said to have performed his ablutions.

All this folly has been of signal utility to the British nation, through the agency of the East India Company. They placed a barrier around the bathing place, and established a company to distribute tickets to these devout pilgrims. These tickets, sold upon a tariff of duties graduated according to the highest principles of political economy, so as to suit the condition of each devotee as respected his pecuniary ability to pay for them, were of no small advantage to the christian treasury of the Company.

Mr. Wright does not hesitate to affirm, in the most unequivocal manner, that this Company of Honorable East-

India merchants of the Christian Kingdom of England, "received fifty-five thousand dollars" of their heathen subjects, as admission fees for the privilege of seeing one of their idols. One cannot but admire the benevolent wisdom and ingenious forecast of this admirable legislation—benevolent, since it arrested, in a measure, the success of heathen idolatry; and ingenious, since it abstracted from heathen idols heathen money, and converted it to christian purposes. It is but justice, to say that this "unrighteous source of gain," according to Mr. Wright, "has been recently abolished."

The meaning of Juggernaut, is the lord of the world. The temple of this idol is in the district of Cuttack, near Orissa. It stands on a sandy tract of country, not far from a lake called Chilka. The idol is carved of wood, with a countenance frightfully hideous, and its mouth is blood-red. It is decorated in a style of the greatest elegance and cost, and clothed in the very finest fabrics. Contiguous to the temple, is the famous car, a tower sixty feet high, placed upon wheels, upon which the idol takes a ride on festival occasions. Along with him are also his white brother, Balarom, and his yellow sister, Shubuda. Several long ropes are attached to the tower, and the assembled worshipers draw the tower along upon its wheels, by these long ropes. Upon the tower are the priests and their attendants, who perform ceremonies proper to the occasion, and attract the attention of the multitude by song and immodest gestures. As the tower moves slowly along upon its wheels, the more fervent and devout worshipers throw themselves in the way of the wheels, and are crushed into instant death, by the immense weight of the tower. These insane acts of self-destruction are considered extremely pleasing to the idol. It has been estimated that not less than 1,200,000 persons attend the two annual festivals of this idol. They occur in March and July. The loss of human life—independent of the self-destruction under the wheels of the idol—from sickness, exposure, and starvation, is absolutely frightful.

"The contributions of the pilgrims," says Mr. Wiggleswall, "amount to a considerable revenue (about £12,000 per annum), which falls to the government, after deducting the expenses of the temple. The English took possession of the province in 1803, and forebore to exact the contributions of the pilgrims during the Marquis of Wellesley's administration, but on his departure from the local government, passed an ordinance for the management of the Pagoda, and the taxing of the pilgrims. The superintendence of the temple and priests was given, in 1809, to the Rajah of Kurdah, with the charge of executing the old regulations. A road from Calcutta to the temple, has been made since 1810, to which a wealthy Hindoo, Rajah Sukmoy Roy, contributed £16,000, sterling, on condition of its being called by his name.

ART. III.—THE INDIANS OF THE UNITED STATES—THEIR PAST, THEIR PRESENT, AND THEIR FUTURE.

According to Mr. Henry R. Schoolcraft, the present number of Indians in the United States is about 423,000. It has ever been extremely difficult to ascertain their numbers. The fear that the object of the white man, in ascertaining their population, was simply to enable him to levy a tribute upon them, has led them to resist all attempts to take a census. The statistics which we possess, have been wrung from the tribes, says Schoolcraft. "Conscious, themselves, of a paucity in their industrial means, and of a disregard of the soundest maxims of civilized life, they have resisted, if they have not often misunderstood, the humane policy which dictated the investigation. Instead of thereby seeking to acquire means of laying a tax on their property—an idea preposterous in itself, as none but citizens can, under the Constitution, be taxed—the inquiry merely contemplated the acquisition of information which might show their condition, and would be of incalculable value to Congress, in more perfectly adapting its laws to it.

The present census of our Indian population is, undoubtedly, only a rough approximation; as, since the enlargement of our territory by the annexation of Texas and the conquest of New Mexico and California, new tribes have been added, of whom we know but little, and least of all about their numbers. The aboriginal population of America has ever been greatly overrated; and the same spirit of exaggeration which actuated the early discoverers, has continued to throw its influence over every part of our history.[*] The same writer thinks it not probable, that at the opening of the 16th century, or any other period which may be selected, the number of souls upon the Indian territory bore any very considerable relation to the number of square miles of country which they occupied, in the shape of villages or hunting grounds. He thinks it doubtful whether an area of less than 50,000 acres, left in the forest state, is more than sufficient to sustain a single Indian living by the chase.

---

[*] Schoolcraft, "Indian Tribes of United States," p. 433.

This estimate, as to the number of acres requisite to sustain a single Indian, is entirely too great; for 50,000 is about 78 square miles; and, according to this, the whole area of the United States and Territories—2,983,153 square miles—would only be sufficient to sustain 38,245 Indians; whereas, Mr. Schoolcraft himself estimates the already greatly decreased Indian population at upwards of 423,000. Seventy-eight square miles is a pretty large range for one Indian.

One thing is quite certain, namely, that the number of Indians in America when it was first discovered, was immensely greater than now. Mr. Schoolcraft estimates the number now at about 423,000, which would be one Indian to about 7 square miles, instead of 78. And if the number three hundred years ago, was double the number now, there must have been at least one Indian for about every three square miles.

The principal causes of the decline of the Indian population of North America, are the following:

1. The introduction of fire-arms, by the whites, and the market which they created for furs. This changed entirely the pursuits of the Indians, who before hunted only for as much game as was necessary for their subsistence, the rest being allowed to live. The bow and arrow was laid aside; and hunting, from being a pleasant and manly pastime, contributing only to the wants of the Indian and his family, now became a regular, every-day, money-making business. The beaver, otter, mink, musk-rat, and other small animals, which had beforetime been sufficient for their food and clothing, and were good for nothing else, now acquired suddenly a new value; and the Indian's appetites were stimulated by every possible inducement of foreign production*—such as brass beads, buttons, rings, jewels of every description, baubles, knives, blankets, &c.—to exert all his powers in the chase. The consequence was, that large tracts of land were soon quite exhausted of their game, and thus rendered unfit for the abode of the Indian, compelling him to abandon the place of his birth and the graves of his ancestors, for new regions further off from the Atlantic shores. This was not, however, a sudden change: the Indian lingered long on the spot where he was born, his brethren in the mean time gradually diminishing in numbers. The law of population, that it increases or diminishes just in proportion as the means of subsistence increases or diminishes, exhibited its operations in the gradual diminution of the Indian population, and followed him to his new hunting grounds. The white man also hastened his departure, by offering to purchase, with rum and trinkets, his gameless

---

* Schoolcraft.

forests, taking advantage of his necessities, his ignorance, and his created appetite for strong drink, which,

2d. Was the greatest cause of all of the diminution of the Indian population. It paralyzed his powers as a hunter, made him lazy, and wore out his constitution. To the scarcity of food, effected by his incessant hunting for furs, was added the body and soul-destroying "*fire-water*" of the christian white man. This completed his ruin, and stripped him of his hunting-grounds and life. Those who were not killed by it, were bought out and driven farther back, there only to be beset, in like manner, again by the civilized white men.

3d. The next cause, which we shall mention, of the decline of the Indian population, is a benevolent one, intended as a good, and as a reparation, but operating, in fact, as a powerful means of diminishing the race; we mean the payment of cash annuities to tribes, *per capita* or otherwise. This is found to render them indolent, vicious, and improvident, and to make them more than ever the prey of vicious white men, who now hang about the Indian tribes, not for their furs, as of old, but for their *money*. This they easily obtain in exchange for food and clothing, at enormous prices, and for disease and death-creating whisky. The annuities paid the Indians, are thus operating as their certain destruction. While they had to hunt all day for a little whisky, its operation was slower, there being less drunk; but now, when they are abundantly supplied from the national treasury with money in hand, they drink barrels where they formerly drank quarts. "It is a question of moment," says Mr. Schoolcraft, whether the ready means thus supplied to them of self-indulgence in the use of distilled spirits, is not hurrying them onward in a career that must end in their moral wreck. It is seen from the inquiries that have been thus far made, that small tribes who, but a few years ago, were prosperous, and had kept up, if not increased, from the era of 1814, in their numbers, have, under the influence of high cash annuities and unlimited credit, been hurried on in the triple career of intemperance, depopulation, and moral degradation. Such, indeed, is their fearful progress in this course, that a few years must result in the entire extinction of some well-known tribes."*

4. Another very serious and fatal cause of the decline of the Indian population is the *small-pox*. No disease that has been introduced among them by the whites, has exercised so fatal an influence upon them as this. Their physicians have no remedy for it. They regard it as if it were the plague,

---

Schoolcraft's "Indian Tribes," part 1, p. 435.

and on its first appearance, with the full conviction that it is incurable, blindly submit to its ravages. This disease, which has spread among them periodically, and at irregular intervals of time, has been one of the most prominent causes, says Mr. Schoolcraft, of their depopulation. Ardent spirits, it is true, have, in the long run, carried off the greatest number; but, its ravages have been comparatively slow, and not characterized by those revolting scenes that have attended the small-pox.

In the year 1837, the small.pox made its appearance in the valley of the Missouri, on board a steamboat, the St. Peters, in the case of a mulatto man, at Black Snake Hills, sixty miles above Fort Leavenworth. It was at first supposed to be the measles; but by the time the boat reached the Council Bluffs, it was ascertained to be small-pox, and had of course been communicated to many in whom the disease was still latent. Every precaution was taken, by sending couriers to the Indians, two days ahead of the boat; but, in spite of this, the disease broke out among them, and spread fearfully. On the 15th of July it appeared among the Mandans, a tribe of 1,600 Indians, living in two villages. In a short time it destroyed all but 31 souls. It next attacked the Minnetarees, a neighboring tribe, and reduced their numbers from 1,000 to 500. The Arickarees, a tribe of 3,000, were next attacked, and only some 1,500 escaped death. It next appeared, the same year, among the Assiniboins, a powerful tribe of 9,000, living north of the Missouri, the whole tribe of whom it nearly annihilated. The Crow or Upsaroka Indians, about 3,000 in number, lost two out of three. It next extended its frightful ravages to the great Blackfoot nation, known under the various names of Blood Indians, Piegans, and Atrinos, and estimated at from 30,000 to 50,000 in number. The inmates of 1,000 lodges, says Mr. Schoolcraft, were destroyed. The number in a lodge he estimates at from six to eight persons. This would make the total number destroyed from 6,000 to 8,000 persons. Mr. Schoolcraft estimates the number of Indians who perished by the disease, in 1837, at not less than 10,000 persons.*

An eye-witness of the awful scenes of misery and death among the Indians, during that frightful epidemic of 1837, writes as follows from Fort Union, under date of Nov. 27th, 1837: "Language, however forcible, can convey but a faint idea of the scene of desolation which the country now presents. In whatever direction you turn, nothing but sad wrecks of mortality meet the eye; lodges standing on every hill, but not a streak of smoke rising from them. Not a sound can be heard to break the awful stillness, save the ominous croak of ravens, and the mournful howl of wolves, fattening on the human carcasses that lie strewed around." Another writer says: "Many of the handsome Arickarees, who had recovered, seeing the disfiguration of their features, committed suicide; some by throwing themselves from rocks, others by stabbing and shooting. The prairie has become a grave-yard; its wild flowers bloom over the sepulchres of Indians. The atmosphere, for miles, is poisoned by the stench of the hundreds of carcasses unburied. The women and children are wandering in groups, without food, or howling over the dead. The men are flying in every direction. The proud, warlike, and noble-looking Blackfoots are no more. Their deserted lodges are seen on every hill. No sound but the raven's croak or the wolf's howl, breaks the solemn stillness. The scene of desolation is appalling, beyond the power of the imagination to conceive."

---

* Schoolcraft's "Indian Tribes," part 1. p. 257-8.

Many laws have been enacted by Congress, having for their object the preservation of the Indian race. But these laws avail but little. The white man always finds ways of evading them. The law, for instance, denounces a heavy penalty against persons carrying ardent spirits into the Indian country; but the Indian agents have decided that the law only applies to white men—that the Indian is not a person, in the eye of the law; and therefore that *he* may carry as much whisky into his own country as he chooses; and so the Indian country is flooded with intoxicating drinks, producing quarreling and frequent murders among the Indians. These murders are left to be punished by the Indians themselves, and these punishments lead to bloody, depopulating wars. The United States laws regarding murders among the Indians, are interpreted by the Indian agents to mean, that if a white man kills an Indian, he must be seized and punished; but if an Indian kills an Indian, the matter must be settled by the Indians themselves, without any interference on the part of the whites.

After all, we believe that legislation, of any kind, will do but little good. Nor have the kind and self-denying efforts of our christian missionaries done much towards civilizing them, and ameliorating their condition. Do what we will, the Indian remains the Indian still. He is not a creature susceptible of civilization; and all contact of him with the white races is death. He dwindles before them—imbibing all of their vices, and none of their virtues. He can no more be civilized than the leopard can change his spots. His race is run, and probably he has performed his earthly mission. He is now gradually disappearing, to give place to a higher order of beings. The order of nature must have its course.

We close our paper with a statement prepared by the Indian office for the United States Census at Washington, showing the total number of Indians within the dominions of the United States at several periods, the names of the tribes, their present and past location, &c. It will be observed that the increase from period to period is owing to the admission of new Indian territory into the Union.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF INDIANS WITHIN THE TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES AT DIFFERENT PERIODS, NUMBER IN EACH TRIBE, PRESENT AND PAST LOCATION, ETC.

NAMES OF TRIBES, AND LOCATION IN 1825. *	1825.	1853.	PRESENT LOCATION, AND REMARKS.
	NUMBER.	NUMBER.	
St. Johns Indians, Maine	300	......	Obtained from report of T. L. Mc Kenney, Esq., Head of the Indian Office. to the Secretary of War, dated January 10, 1825. Of late years these tribes have either become extinct or so reduced in number as to be lost sight of by the government in their tribal character.
Passamaquoddies, do.	379		
Penobscot, do.	277		
Marshpee, Massachusetts	320		
Herring Pond, do.	40		
Martha's Vineyard, do.	340		
Troy, do.	50		
Narragansetts, Rhode Island	420		
Mohegan, Connecticut	300		
Stonington, do.	50		
Groton, do.	50		
Senecas, New York	2,325	3,745	The aggregate number of Indians now residing in New York. The Oneidas, Stockbridges, Brothertons, and a few Senecas, are now west—part living in Wisconsin, the others in Indian Territory.
Tuscaroras, do.	253		
Oneidas, do.	1,096		
Onondagas, do.	446		
Cayugas, do.	90		
Stockbridges, do.	273		
Brothertons, do.	360		
St. Regis, do.	300		
Nottoways, Virginia	47	....	Supposed to be none in Virginia at present.
Catawbas, South Carolina	450	200	Estimated.
Wyandots, Ohio	542	553	Now in Indian Territory, west.
Shawnees, do.	800	1,400	do. do. do.
Senecas, do.	551		
Delawares, do.	80	....	do. do. do.
Ottowas, do.	377	247	do. do. do.
Wyandots, Michigan Territory	37	....	Supposed to be few, if any, in Michigan now.
Pottawatomies, do.	106	7,000	The Menomonees and a large number of Chippewas, with the Winnebagoes, are now, the first tribe in Wisconsin, the others in Minnesota.
Chippewas and Ottowas, do.	18,473		
Menomonees, do.	3.900	2,200	
Winnebagoes, do.	5,800	2,708	
Miamies and Eel River, Indiana	1,073	766	The larger portion live in Indian Territory, west; balance in Indiana.
Menomonees, Illinois	270	....	Now in Wisconsin. (See above.)
Kaskaskias, do.	36	200	Now in Indian Territory, west.
Sacs and Foxes, do.	6,400	2,373	do. do. do.
Pottowatomies and Chippewas, Indiana and Illinois	3,900	4,680	do. do. do.
Creeks, Georgia, and Alabama	20,000	25,000	do. do. do.
Cherokees, Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee, and North Carolina	9,000	19,130	Indian Territory, west; about 1,600 of this number live in North Carolina.
Choctaws, Mississippi, and Alabama	21,000	17,000	Indian Territory west; about 1,000 of this number live in Mississippi, or east.
Chickasaws, Mississippi	3,625	4,709	Indian Territory, west.
Seminoles, Florida	5,000	3,000	do. do. about 500 of this number live in Florida.

* The total Indian population in 1789 was estimated at 76,000.

STATEMENT—*continued.*

NAMES OF TRIBES, AND LOCATION IN 1825.	1825.	1853.	PRESENT LOCATION, AND REMARKS.
	NUMBER.	NUMBER.	
Biloxi, Louisiana	55	......	It is believed there are but few Indians now in Louisiana.
Apolashe, do.	45		
Pascagoulas, do.	121		
Addees, do.	27		
Yattassees, do.	36		
Coshattees, do.	180		
Caddoes, do.	450		
Delawares, do.	51		
Choctaws, do.	178		
Shawnees, do.	110		
Natchitoches, do.	25		
Quapaws, do.	8		
Piankeshaws, do.	27		
Delawares, Missouri	1,800	1,132	Now in Indian Territory, west.
Kickapoos, do.	2,200	475	
Shawnees, do.	1,383	....	Numbered with Shawnees and Senecas above.
Weas, do.	327	151	Now in Indian Territory, west.
Iowas, do.	1,100	437	do. do. do.
Osages, Arkansas Territory and Missouri	5,200	4,941	do. do. do.
Piankeshaws, do.	207	100	do. do. do.
Cherokees, Arkansas Territory	6,000	....	Numbered with those of Georgia, &c., above.
Quapaws, do.	700	314	Now in Indian Territory, west.
Kansas	....	1,375	Indian Territory, west.
Peorias	....	55	do. do.
Sioux	....	8,000	Minnesota Territory, &c.
Chippewas	....	8,500	do. do.
Stockbridges, Munsees, and Christian Indians	....	165	Indian Territory, west.
Ottoes and Missourias	....	1,000	do. do.
Omahas	....	1,300	do. do.
Pawnees	....	4,500	do. do.
Oneidas	....	978	Wisconsin.
Stockbridges and Munsees	....	400	do.
Creeks	....	100	Alabama.
California Indians	....	100,000	California—estimated number.
Oregon and Washington Indians	....	23,000	Oregon and Washington Territories, estimated number.
Utah Indians	....	11,500	Utah Territory—estimated number.
New Mexico Indians	....	45,000	New Mexico Territory— do.
Texas Indians	....	29,000	Texas— do.
Indians of Missouri valley	....	43,430	Blackfeet, Sioux, and other tribes—estimated number.
Indians of the plains or Arkansas river	....	20,000	Kioways, Comanches, Pawnees, and others—estimated number.
Whole number of both sexes and all ages	129,366	400,764	

NOTE.—The great difference in the several aggregates must be accounted for in the extension of the territorial limits of the United States by the acquisition of Texas, &c., bringing with it an increased Indian population; and, further, in the fact that the report of Mr. McKenney for 1825 does not appear to have embraced the tribes of Missouri Valley, the Plains, Oregon, &c., then a part of the United States.

ART. IV.—THE FIRST SETTLEMENT OF KENTUCKY.

NARRATIVE OF AN ADVENTURE IN KENTUCKY IN THE YEAR 1775.

We are indebted to Saml. R. Walker, of New Orleans, for a very interesting manuscript, prepared by his grandfather, the Hon. Felix Walker of North Carolina, for some time a member of Congress, and one of the earliest pioneers in the Western wilds. Our readers will be pleased with such a memento of the "hunter times" of that great State, rendered illustrious by the achievements of Boone and his compeers. We have published several such sketches in the past.—ED.

IN the month of February in that year, Captain William Twetty, Samuel Coburn, James Bridges, Thomas Johnson, John Hart, William Hicks, James Peeke, and myself, set out from Rutherford County, North Carolina, to explore a country by the name of Leowvisay, greatly renowned and highly spoken of as the best quality of land, abounding in game, now the State of Kentucky.

We placed ourselves under the care and direction of Captain Twetty, an active and enterprising woodsman, of good original mind and great benevolence, and although a light habited man, in strength and agility of bodily powers was not surpassed by any of his day and time, well calculated for the enterprise.

We proceeded to Watawgo river, a tributary stream of Holsteen, to the residence of Colonel Charles Robertson, now in the State of Tennessee, where a treaty was held by Colonel Richard Henderson and his associates, with the Cherokee tribe of Indians, for the purchase of that section of country we were going to visit, then called the Bloody Ground, so named from the continual wars and quarrels of the hunting parties of Indians of different tribes who all claimed the ground as their own, and the privilege of hunting the game; who murdered and plundered each other, as opportunity offered.

We continued at Watawgo during the treaty, which lasted about twenty days. Among others, there was a distinguished chief called Atticulaculla, the Indian name, known to the white people by the name of the Little Carpenter—in allusion, say the Indians, to his deep, artful, and ingenious diplomatic abilities, ably demonstrated in negotiating treaties with the white people, and influence in their national councils; like as a white carpenter could make every notch and joint fit in wood, so he could bring all his views to fill and fit their places in the political machinery of his nation. He was the most celebrated and influential Indian among all the tribes then known; considered as the Solon of his day. He was said to be about ninety years of age, a very small man, and so lean and light habited, that I scarcely believe he would have exceeded more in weight than a pound for each year of his life. He was marked with two large scores or scars on each cheek, his ears cut and banded with silver, hanging nearly down on each shoulder, the ancient Indian mode of distinction in some tribes and fashion in others. In one of his public talks delivered to the whites, he spoke to this effect: he was an old man, had presided as chief in their council, and as president of his nation for more than half a century, had formerly been appointed agent and envoy extraordinary to the king of England on business of the first importance to his nation; he crossed the big water, arrived at his destination, was received with great distinction, had the honor of dining with his majesty and the nobility; had the utmost respect paid him by the great men among the white people; had accomplished his mission with success; and from the long standing in the highest dignities of his nation, he claimed the confidence and good faith in all and every thing he would advance in support of the rightful claims of his people to the Bloody Ground, then in treaty to be sold to the white people. His name is mentioned in the life of General Marion, at a treaty held with the Cherokees at Kewee, in South Carolina, in the year 1762 or 3. The treaty being concluded and the purchase made, we proceeded on our journey to meet Col. Daniel Boon, with other adventurers, bound to the same country: accordingly we met and rendezvoused at the Long Island on Holsteen river, united our small force with Col. Boon and his associates, his brother, Squire Boon, and Col. Richard Callaway, of Virginia. Our company, when united, amounted to 30 persons. We then, by general consent, put ourselves under the management and control of Col. Boon, who was to be our pilot and conductor through the wilderness, to the promised land; perhaps no adventurers since the days of Don Quixote, or before, ever felt so cheerful and elated in prospect; every heart abounded with joy and excitement in anticipating the new things we would see, and the romantic scenes through which we must pass; and, exclusive of the novelty of the journey, the advantages and accumulations ensuing on the settlement of a new country was a dazzling object with many of our company. Under the influence of these impressions we went our way rejoicing, with transporting views of our success, taking our leave of the civilized world for a season.

About the 10th of March we put off from the Long Island, marked our track with our hatchets, crossed Clinch and

Powell's river, over Cumberland mountain, and crossed Cumberland river—came to a watercourse called, by Col. ———, Rockcastle river; killed a fine bear on our way, camped all night, had an excellent supper.

On leaving that river, we had to encounter and cut our way through a country of about 20 miles, entirely covered with dead brush, which we found a difficult and laborious task. At the end of which we arrived at the commencement of a cane country, traveled about 30 miles through thick cane and reed, and as the cane ceased, we began to discover the pleasing and rapturous appearance of the plains of Kentucky. A new sky and strange earth seemed to be presented to our view. So rich a soil we had never seen before; covered with clover in full bloom, the woods were abounding with wild game—turkeys so numerous that it might be said they appeared but one flock, universally scattered in the woods. It appeared that nature, in the profusion of her bounty, had spread a feast for all that lives, both for the animal and rational world. A sight so delightful to our view and grateful to our feelings, almost inclined us, in imitation of Columbus, in transport to kiss the soil of Kentucky, as he hailed and saluted the sand on his first setting his foot on the shores of America. The appearance of the country coming up to the full measure of our expectations, and seemed to exceed the fruitful source of our imaginary prospects.

We felt ourselves as passengers through a wilderness just arrived at the fields of Elysium, or at a garden where was no forbidden fruit. Nothing can furnish the contemplative mind with more sublime reflections, than nature unbroken by art; we can there trace the wisdom of the Great Architect in the construction of his works in nature's simplicity, which, when he had finished, he pronounced all good. But, alas! fond man! the vision of a moment made dream of a dream, and shadow of a shade! Man may appoint, but One greater than man can disappoint. A sad reverse overtook us two days after, on our way to Kentucky river. On the 25th March, 1775, we were fired on by the Indians, in our camp asleep, about an hour before day. Captain Twetty was shot in both knees, and died the third day after. A black man, his body servant, killed dead; myself badly wounded; our company dispersed. So fatal and tragical an event cast a deep gloom of melancholy over all our prospects, and high calculations of long life and happy days in our newly-discovered country were prostrated; hope vanished from the most of us, and left us suspended in the tumult of uncertainty and conjecture. Col. Boon, and a few others, appeared to possess firmness and fortitude. In our calamitous situation, a circumstance occurred one morning after our misfortunes, that proved the courage and stability of our few remaining men (for some had gone back). One of our men, who had run off at the fire of the Indians on our camp, was discovered peeping from behind a tree, by a black woman belonging to Colonel Callaway, while gathering small wood. She ran in, and gave the alarm of Indians. Colonel Boon instantly caught his rifle, ordered the few men to form, take trees, and give battle, and not to run till they saw him fall. They formed agreeably to his directions, and I believe they would have fought with equal bravery to any Spartan band ever brought to the field of action, when the man behind the tree announced his name, and came in. My situation was critical and dangerous, being then a youth, three hundred miles from white inhabitants. My friend and guardian, Captain Twetty, taken dead from my side, my wounds pronounced by some to be mortal, produced very serious reflections. Yet withal I retained firmness to support me under the pressure of distress, and did not suffer me to languish in depression of mind.

But where shall I begin, or where can I end, in thanks and grateful acknowledgments to that benign and merciful Protector who spared and preserved me in the blaze of danger and in the midst of death! I trust I shall remember that singular and protecting event, with filial sensations of gratitude, while I retain my recollection. We remained at the same place twelve days; I could not be removed sooner without the danger of instant death. At length I was carried in a litter between two horses, twelve miles, to Kentucky river, where we made a station, and called it Boonsborough, situated in a plain on the south side of the river, wherein was a lick with two sulphur springs strongly impregnated. On entering the plain we were permitted to view a very interesting and romantic sight. A number of buffaloes, of all sizes, supposed to be between two and three hundred, made off from the lick in every direction; some running, some walking, others loping slowly and carelessly, with young calves playing, skipping, and bounding through the plain. Such a sight some of us never saw before, nor perhaps never may again. But to proceed, Colonel Richard Henderson, Colonel Luttrell, from North Carolina; Captain Wm. Cock, since the Honorable Judge Cock, of Tennessee, and Colonel Thomas Slaughter, of Virginia, arrived in the month of April with a company of about thirty men. Our military forces, when united, numbered about sixty or sixty-five men, expert riflemen. We lived plentifully on wild meat, buffalo, bear, deer, and turkey, without bread or salt, generally in good health, until the month of July, when I left the country.

Colonel Richard Henderson, being the chief proprietor in the purchase of the bloody ground (indeed so to us), acted as Governor, called an assembly, by election of members, out of our small numbers; organized a government, convened the assembly in May, 1775, consisting of eighteen members, exclusive of the speaker, passed several laws for the regulation of our little community, well adapted to the policy of an infant government.

This assembly was held under two shade trees, in the plains of Boonsborough. This was the first feature of civilization ever attempted in what is now called the Western Country.

This small beginning, that little germ of policy, by a few adventurers from North Carolina, has given birth to the now flourishing State of Kentucky. From that period the population increased with such rapidity, that in less than twenty years it became a State.

In justice to Colonel Henderson, it may be said, that his message or address to the assembly alluded to was considered equal to any of like kind ever delivered to any deliberate body in that day and time.

In the sequel and conclusion of my narrative I must not neglect to give honor to whom honor is due. Colonel Boon conducted the company under his care through the wilderness, with great propriety, intrepidity, and courage; and was I to enter an exception to any part of his conduct, it would be on the ground that he appeared void of fear and of consequence—too little caution for the enterprise. But let me, with feeling recollection and lasting gratitude, ever remember the unremitting kindness, sympathy, and attention paid to me by Colonel Boon in my distress. He was my father, my physician, and friend; he attended me as his child, cured my wounds by the use of medicines from the woods, nursed me with paternal affection until I recovered, without the expectation of reward. Gratitude is the only tribute I can pay to his memory. He is now beyond the praise or the blame of mortals, in that world unknown from whose bourne no traveler returns. I also was kindly treated by all my companions, particularly John Kennedy. From Captain Cock I received kind and friendly attentions.

We continued in our station; our men were out viewing and exploring the country, choosing such tracts of land as suited them, plenty for all, and thought all was our own.

Colonel James Herod, my old acquaintance in North Carolina, came up to see me, tarried a few days. Being a little recovered, I went home with him to his station, since called Herodsburgh, where he had a few men. I tarried there two weeks, and returned to Boonsborough. These two stations contained the whole population of that country, which did not exceed in number one hundred men.

The company in our station continued to traverse the country through woods and wilds, choosing their lots of future inheritance, until the month of July, when I returned home to my father's residence in North Carolina, and have not seen Kentucky since, which I have often regretted.

I have been often solicited to make a publication of this adventure, but still declined. Until late, there appears something like it in the newspapers, which is not correct.

I therefore thought it incumbent on me, as one of the company, and in possession of all the facts, to make this statement, and give it publicity, which I know to be truth by hard experience; and perhaps I may be the last solitary individual of that number left to give a correct relation of that adventure.

ART. V.—EARLY LIFE IN THE SOUTHWEST.

No. V.

CAPTAIN HENRY S. BROWN, PIONEER OF TEXAS.

THE West, South, and Southwest have been fruitful in the production of men, more or less uneducated, yet distinguished for practical wisdom, boldness, and patriotism. Great numbers of them will soon be forgotten forever, though the aggregate result of their labors may long signalize their collective memory. That a bold and honest pioneer, after spending his life 'mid scenes of danger and suffering—where trials and hardships are met at every stream, on every hill, and in every dale, devoting his time and means to opening the wilderness to civilization—should go down to his wild and untombed grave, and thence be forgotten, to me has ever been a most melancholy reflection. I honor the noble pioneers of the Southwest, especially the pioneers of Texas, those premonitors of our great American institutions and freedom.

In this number, by permission of your regular contributor, it is proposed to devote a brief space to one of that class of men of whom I have been speaking.

HENRY S. BROWN was born, as I have been informed, on the 8th of March, 1793, in Mason county, Ky., of respectable parents. His father, Caleb Brown, lived to the age of 78;

and his grandfather, Edward Brown, of Baltimore county, Md., removing to Kentucky in 1780, died in 1823, at the advanced age of 89 years. Henry's mother was the daughter of Col. Henry Stephenson, of Maryland, and his grandmother a Durbin, of whose family the Rev. Dr. J. P. Durbin, of Baltimore, is one. At the age of fourteen, Henry lost his mother, and was left in a new country, without education, and thrown upon his own resources. He displayed, at an early age, that restlessness, boldness, and spirit, which characterized him through life. Restless and impetuous, generous and noble, he was ever ready for a wrestle, a foot-race, a target, or an encounter with the wily red man of the West,—always ready for any emergency. At an early day, I think in 1810, he left Kentucky and took up his abode in the forks of the Missouri and Mississippi rivers, in the county of St. Charles. That was then an exposed frontier, and during the war of 1812–15, suffered much from the forays of the Indians of Missouri and Illinois. Among the first volunteers in the field, Henry S. Brown, the favorite of his frontier comrades, was prominent. Through the campaigns of that service he passed with great *eclat*, as a brave and daring young man; and at Fort Clark, now Peoria, Il., he distinguished himself by one of the most daring acts of the day. The colonel in command, while the garrison was besieged by a superior Indian force, was anxious to know the number and exact position of the enemy, who were protected from sight and danger by a neighboring wood and ravine extending near a mile in front of the fort, in the prairie. But who would venture out? No one had done so for some days without being killed. Various experienced frontiersmen were called upon, but declined the effort, as too hazardous; but the moment the matter came to the knowledge of young Brown, then in his twentieth year, he offered his services, which were gladly accepted. Mounted on a good horse, he dashed forth, made a complete reconnoisance of the position of the enemy, passing round in their rear, and allowing them time to cut him off from the fort. Having discharged his duty, and turned the point to return to the fort, he found the prairie filled with the savage foes, ready to annihilate him. Undaunted as the lion, he reigned up the noble steed, carelessly pursuing his way till within gun-shot of the Indians, when, suddenly rising in his stirrups, waving his hat in bold defiance, he presented his piece, and darted with lightning-speed through the crowd, while showers of bullets, and the mighty war-whoop, were hurled at him, but in vain. His noble daring confounded the red-men, and their aim was unsteady. Brown reached the gate in safety, and was welcomed with long and loud huzzas. In every emergency he manifested the same heroism.

In 1814, he was married in St. Charles county, and at the close of the war, began trading to New Orleans and the lower country, taking down large amounts of stock and western produce, and continued in that business, with varied success, till 1824, removing, however, in 1819, to Pike county.

Having met with severe reverses, and becoming acquainted with Gen. Austin, of Texas, he visited that country in the winter of 1824–5, with a large stock of Mexican and Indian goods, having in company his brother John, afterwards known in Texas as Waco Brown.

After procuring the necessary animals, guides, and assistants, Capt. Brown determined to send his brother John, or *Waco*, into the Camanche country with their Indian goods, while he would take a caravan into Mexico.

Both parties left the Brazos river about the same time in April, 1825.

John Brown made a successful trip into the Camanche country, some 350 miles above San Felipe, exchanged his goods for horses, mules, buffalo-robes and peltries, having been most kindly received and hospitably treated by the Indians. He then began his inward march, with three men, and his immense cavalcade. Some three or four days on the march, he discovered indications going to show that he was followed by a lurking enemy; and on the same night, about twelve, he was attacked by a large band of Indians, leaving him no alternative but flight. His men (Andrew Scott, James Musick and Thomas Jamison) succeeded in escaping together, and reached the settlements in due season, supposing Brown dead.

Some two months later, Capt. Brown returned from Monterey, in Mexico, and instead of meeting his brother, was informed of his robbery and supposed death, news well calculated to unnerve the stoutest heart.

Capt. Brown, however, had seen too much of danger, and possessed too determined a spirit to be easily intimidated. His course was soon marked out. He resolved to know his brother's fate, and, if possible, to recover him, if living.

For this purpose, he raised and equipped twenty of the most experienced and daring men in Austin's Colony, and started with an outfit for three months. He struck directly into the Indian country, and had advanced some three hundred miles, encountering and defeating several small parties of warriors, when one of those rainy seasons peculiar to that region, opened upon him, and continued unceasingly for eleven days. The consequences were, their supplies were spoiled, the streams were rendered impassable, and the country became too boggy to allow of further operations. Without accomplishing the object in view, or gaining any information in regard to his brother's fate, he was compelled to abandon the enterprise, and return to the Brazos, believing his brother to be bleaching on the mountain wilds of Texas.

Capt. Brown having been very successful in his Mexican trip, had acquired a vast herd of horses and mules for the Louisiana market. These were herded till about July, 1826, when he designed driving them in. About noon, on a pleasant July day, while preparing for his departure for Louisiana, in the town of San Felipe a horseman was seen rapidly advancing from the northwest several miles distant. As there were no settlements in that direction, curiosity among the quiet villagers was soon on tiptoe, to know whence came the stranger. He soon arrived, and from his costume and long flowing hair, was pronounced a genuine Indian. Coming directly up to the group of assembled spectators, the horseman's eye ran rapidly over them; then dashing up to Capt. Brown, he dismounted, and with extended arms, exclaimed, "Why, brother! don't you know me?" A long embrace and grateful tears, were the only response. John's story was short. At the time of the attack on his party, he escaped for the time being, but from a confirmed lameness in one leg, was unable to travel much on foot, and he was soon discovered and captured by a war-party of the hostile Wacos. He had managed to gain their confidence, and was allowed occasionally to pursue the chase; and now, after thirteen months' captivity, had come down with a robbing party, from whom he had escaped the previous night, and now gave such directions as to their intended route, as to enable a party, now promptly raised by Capt. Brown, to pursue, overhaul, and kill all of them, except a single messenger, who escaped by dint of hard riding. Such was the sequel to poor John's long captivity. He died in San Antonio in 1831.

From this time till 1832, Capt. Brown pursued the Mexican trade, meeting with many reverses and narrow escapes, frequently commanding parties against the Indians, and often giving the red men reason to dread his prowess. One of these expeditions he conducted, in 1829, into the mountains; another up the Brazos, in 1830; one or two in 1831, from Gonzales,—always manifesting the same prompt and gallant disposition to meet the foes of his fellow-men in deadly strife.

At the time of the troubles between the Texan colonists and the Mexican troops in 1832, Capt. Brown commanded the rifles, a body of the most daring sharp-shooters ever enrolled in Texas, or elsewhere, who immortalized themselves at the battle of Velasco. Colonel Ugartechen, with over three hundred Mexican troops, was strongly fortified at Velasco. The colonists numbered 112 men, of whom Capt. Brown commanded about 80; the remainder, under Capt. Russell, operated from a schooner in the Brazos river, the whole being under the lead of Col. John Austin. Brown, under cover of the night, led his noble band to within seventy yards of the fort, and placed them under the feeble protection of a few drift logs on the beach. There, at dawn of day, he dealt a deadly fire upon the fort, his men shooting with a precision perhaps never surpassed; so deadly was their aim, that a Mexican durst not raise his head above the battlements. Many, in so doing, were shot in the eyes and forehead. Others, more cautious, would raise their hands to draw the fire; and over forty were thus shot in the hand. The conduct of the tried and undaunted Brown, on this occasion, and especially in the noble example he set the youthful members of his company (of whom there were many), drew upon him the spontaneous admiration of his own men and the country, and a brilliant victory crowned the day.

This was his last adventure on the tented field; though I have omitted very many of the most interesting incidents of his pioneer life. Indeed it is almost impossible to gather more than a meager account of the events in the life of any of our early pioneers. Most of them and their immediate followers have gone the way of all flesh, and there are no records to appeal to. Capt. Brown died at Columbia, Brazoria county, July 26, 1834, aged but 41 years. He had enjoyed the confidence and friendship of the Austins, Whartons, Bowie, Travis, Smith, and the people generally, and was lamented as a valuable man to the colonies of Texas. John Henry Brown, editor of the Indianola *Bulletin*, is one of his only two surviving sons.

ART. VI.—THE TELEGRAPH.

[Continued from Vol. XV.]

THE mariners' compass was discovered as early as the twelfth century, but was not improved until the time of Norman, who was the first to discover the *dip* or *inclination* of the needle. Columbus, 80 years earlier, had become acquainted, for the first time, with the *variation* or *declination* of the needle. It was when about 200 leagues from the island of

Ferro, that he remarked the extraordinary conduct of the compass-needle; and to him Humboldt ascribes the honor of not only "having discovered a line without magnetic variation, but also of having, by his considerations on the progressive increase of westerly declination, in receding from that line, given the first impulse to the study of terrestrial magnetism in Europe." Thus, as we have said, although the mariners' compass had been known in the twelfth century, three hundred years were allowed to elapse before the discovery was made that the needle would dip from a horizontal plane toward the earth, and four hundred years before the discovery was made that the poles varied from a true direction north and south.

Nations had now engaged extensively in foreign commerce and ocean navigation. It became necessary to improve on the known qualities of nautical science. To undertake long voyages, dependent on the accuracy of the compass, without being in possession of the secrets of terrestrial phenomena which so strangely influenced the needle in different latitudes, was equivalent almost to sending forth a vessel upon the waters without a rudder. Voyages were accomplished without disaster probably as frequently then as now; but the navigator's course was deviatory, tortuous; and his time from port to port, with valuable cargoes of merchandise and human life, much prolonged. And every hour upon the mighty waters is fraught with danger and death. Norman, who styled himself Hydrographer, published a work in 1576, in which terrestrial magnetism was treated at length, but in a crude and vague manner. However, his work was regarded as the navigator's standard until 1700, when Robert Halley published his generalized observations on the variations of the needle. Halley's hypothesis was, that "our globe is a great piece of clock-work, by which the poles of an internal magnet are carried round in a cycle of determinate but unknown period." He put it, according to his opinion, past doubt, that "the globe of the earth is one grand magnet, having *four* magnetic poles of attraction, two near each pole of the equator; and that in those parts of the world which lie adjacent to any one of these magnetical poles, the needle is chiefly governed thereby, the nearest pole being always predominant over the more remote." This hypothesis was maintained until 1811, when, induced by a prize proposed by the Royal Danish Academy, M. Hansteen undertook to reconstruct the whole theory of terrestrial phenomena, and improve the science of navigation. The results of his labors of eight years appeared in his great work, published in 1819, entitled, "Upon the Magnetism of the Earth." Hansteen confirmed much of what Halley had previously maintained in his hypothesis—namely, that the whole magnetic system is in motion; that the moving force is very great, extending its effects from pole to pole; and that its motion is not sudden, but gradual and regular. Hansteen's work proved more than this. It clearly showed that the earth's magnetism is neither stable nor permanent. In its sublime mystery is involved constant and varied changes, and of a nature so rapid, that it is necessary to assume epochs within which time all celestial and terrestrial observations should be made and repeated. In a chart to his great work, Hansteen furnishes lines of variation of the magnetic force for that period, 1787. In this chart the western line of *no variation** begins in latitude 60°, west of Hudson's Bay, and proceeds in an almost straight line till it bends round the eastern part of South America, a little south of the Equator. The eastern line of *no variation*, on the contrary, is tortuous and irregular, full of curious bends and double sinuosities, plainly indicating the varied intensity of local magnetic forces. It begins in latitude 60°, south of New Holland; bisects that island in its center; extends through the Indian Archipelago, in doing which, by its sinuosities, *it crosses the equator three times;* thence stretches along the coast of China, sweeping in a semicircular curve to latitude 71°, whence it again diverges to the south, and returns northward with a semicircular curve which terminates in the White Sea. Any one who will examine this subject, even in the abstract, must be convinced how important it is to nautical science that these phenomena should be simplified to the commonest understanding, and how immeasurably commerce will be benefited, when the whole terrestrial magnetic mystery shall be clearly and accurately expounded to the living or prospective generations.

"The declination, the dip, and the intensity, all undergo variations at the same place, some of which are regular, and others irregular. Some occurring through long periods of time, and others at short intervals. In the year 1657, the declination needle pointed due north in London; it then commenced moving westward, and continued to do so till the close of the last century. Its variation is now decreasing. The daily variation consists of an oscillation eastward or westward of the mean position, the amount of which varies with the times of the day, and is different in different places. Generally, the greatest declination eastward is between 6 and 9 in the morning, and westward about 1 in the afternoon, returning toward the east till 8, P. M. It is never greater than a few minutes; and the needle is stationary at night."*

---

* Drap. Phil. p. 284—287.

Hence the necessity of stated epochs for the redetermination of the magnetic poles, and consequently of longitudes. But since electricity has been drawn in, as an active aid to the labors of philosophers, and made to subserve the great cause of celestial and terrestial science, we have no doubt that many of the primary problems which have puzzled scholarship for hundreds and thousands of years, will be rendered as plain and appreciable as questions of multiplication and subtraction in simple arithmetic.† And had the discov-

---

* Draper.

† A curious philosophical question has lately arisen, and which continues to occupy the attention of scientific minds. It is this: Will electricity ascend in a body from the earth, and discharge itself in the air? The question originated in a house in Newark, N. J., being struck by lightning, the course of the fluid being from the basement of the building upward, until it had spent itself—one stream through a door on the first floor, and another through the roof of the house, whence, as stated, it ascended the lightning rod. The incident naturally engaged much attention, as such a phenomenon, if truly narrated or explained, had never before been recorded. There appears to be no doubt as to the course of the fluid; for it left unmistakable traces of an upward tendency by perforations with the splinters fringing the holes on the upper surface, and leaving a clear surface below. Other evidences of a similar character are equally strong in the premises. The real secret, however, does not seem to have been reached in the discussion which has succeeded the incident. E. Meriam, Esq., of New York, the Electrician, has doubtless come nearest to a correct hypothesis on the subject. He says,—

"The house is of wood, painted white, is two stories high—about 25 feet, by about 32—has a deep basement, and is surmounted by a cupola. The roof comes to a point in the center, under the cupola, and is covered with shingles nailed on. The rod extends more than two feet above the cupola, and has several points, all of which are *covered with a thick coating of white paint!!* The rod is also covered with a thick coating of paint until it reaches the roof; and from this point to where it rises in a curve to pass over the eave-trough, it is wholly free from paint. From a little above the eave-trough to the ground, the rod has a thick and hard coat of white paint upon it. The rod is sound iron, and about three fourths of an inch in diameter. The cupola is furnished with a small tin leader which discharges the rain water falling on it, upon the roof.

"The lightning descended directly from the cloud, and was accompanied by a heavy clap of thunder, to that portion of the rod on the roof which is unpainted, and followed it until it reached the paint; here it left the rod and followed the nails of the shingles, and descended to a large iron clamp, made of heavy bar iron, on the plate, and followed the plate from clamp to clamp. Nearly under the rod, and but a few feet from it, is a large sheet iron stove and pipe, stored in the attic; the stove, without doubt, received a part of the discharge from the rod, and from the attic it passed down a column of rarified air, in the center of the house, to the lowest brass stair carpet-rod, and from this rod, under the oil cloth of the hall, tearing it, as is its usual practice in all such cases, and descended on the floor nails to the basement, which is in three apartments—two are dry cellars, and the third a large kitchen, heated by a fire in a large stove. In passing into the basement, it threw down the upper plastering of the kitchen, and passed to two heavy cast-iron weights of a dumb-waiter near by, and from thence to the leaden water-pipe, from thence to an iron sink and to a metal pump into the earth; all these conductors were near together. The lightning also entered the other two apartments of the basement, in one of which it split the top of a stud, and divided it accurately at the termination of the point of a ery of the electro-magnetic properties of lightning been deferred another century, science would have been retarded in due proportion.

nail. A large brass kettle lay on the cellar floor, at the foot of the stud, and against it was a large iron kettle, both good conductors, and in immediate contact with a damp flooring. In the other apartment it splintered the studding, at the foot of which lay a large iron tea-kettle. On the shelves here were several pieces of iron.

"This lightning, as I have before said, did not come from the ground—I have never known a building or any other object to be struck by under-ground lightning. Lightning can only come from the vast depths of the earth where the earth's crust is rent by terrific earthquakes or volcanic action."

The incrustation of paint on the lightning rod, was undoubtedly the cause of the evil, or erratic course of the fluid. The lightning rod, if it had been free of this coating, would have answered all the purposes of a conductor; for we are assuming that the fluid proceeded downward from the clouds, and not upward from the earth. Electricity when released from the clouds, seeks that which is the most attractive to it. Sometimes these attractions prevail in the air in greater abundance than at other times. This we see to be the case during heavy thunder storms, when the regions of the air are hung with dense clouds; and also on occasions when they are comparatively free from clouds. In the first instance, the zig-zag track of the fluid is produced by the attractive and counter-attractive qualities of the surcharged bodies striving for mastery, in order to attract into their receptacles the discharged fluid. In the second instance, the track of the fluid is in a straight line, because there is no local, predominant, attractive or counter-attractive bodies to influence its direction, save the single or isolated cloud which receives it at a distance. When a number of clouds are floating together there is a partial overcoming of each other's attractive powers, which causes the zig-zag direction, until the fluid is received by the still more powerful attractives which the earth affords. When clouds traverse space wide asunder, there is no such local conflict, and hence the straight track of the fluid to the distant cloud, or direct to the earth. Mr. Meriam has explained why the fluid did not follow the lightning-rod—a position which science will sustain. Rain drops are excellent conductors; and in the case stated, the descent of the electric current was aided from clamp to clamp and object to object by them. We know that lightning is more apt to strike the ground while rain is falling, especially in torrents, than when there is no rain. When the fluid had reached the ground, it may have encountered some non-conducting substance, as a stratum of sand; and the damp cellar* being near, probably with a clay (conducting) flooring, it naturally sought that locality. Thence its course was upward, drawn thence by attractive bodies, such as nails and metallic wares, until it had spent itself in the manner stated—either in the air, or by a return to the earth. The electricity of the earth is always in a state of repose, or a positive condition. Were it otherwise, the phenomena would almost constantly be presented—at least upon the recurrence of every thunder storm—of the terrestial fluid upheaving and rending the earth's surface in its attempts to relieve itself of a superincumbent load of negative electricity, and to regain its disturbed equilibrium. We can easily conceive that frightful disasters would thus constantly happen—that terrestial shocks and earthquakes would be of hourly frequency—that cities would be in daily jeopardy of being tossed into ruins—rivers changed from their courses—mountains swallowed up in gulfs—and even continents shaken with these efforts of the majesty of the earth. If, indeed, the electric fluid which injured the house in Newark had proceeded from its abodes in our planet, the house would have been rent to its base, and the shock of the mighty rent have been felt even in New York city.

---

* Mr. Meriam says "two dry cellars." But the cellars were humid withal, as it was raining; and if with clay floorings, that fact would have been sufficient, with the metal attractions, to have enticed the fluid, after it had encountered the earth, especially if it had struck a non-conducting or sandy substance.

But we have named only a few of the philosophical and mechanical experiments that have been made with electrical agents, since the invention of the telegraph. Russia has resolved on establishing a series of magnetic stations throughout the dominions of the empire and in Central Asia, in which, we are assured, the American electric plans will be wholly introduced. France and Germany (England led the way) are preparing to imitate this example. Again, it is announced that a machinist of Belgium has invented a locomotive propelled by electricity. We hear of schemes for lighting cities by electricity.* A project has been broached in England for lighting her light-houses with electricity, and of instituting a system of sea telegraphy by the same agent. We repeat the query, to what extent may not the original discovery be carried in its lateral connections and coincident aspects? Let us return to the uses and purposes of the telegraph.

Three crowned heads of Europe have conferred the honor upon this country of adopting the Morse invention. The King of Würtemburgh recently awarded the state medal to the author of the American system; upon which the *American Magazine* remarks, "The Grand Sultan of Turkey took the lead, both in the time of manifesting his appreciation of the invention, and in the high distinction bestowed upon the inventor. The King of Prussia followed, and, on establishing the electric telegraph throughout his dominions, directed that the American system shall be used wherever intelligence is transmitted through great distances. And now, the King of Würtenburgh adopts entire the American system. The German Telegraph Union, comprising all the states of Germany, after deliberating in convention at Vienna on the best system for their international correspondence, have come to the conclusion that none but the American system will fully accomplish their object. Professor Steinheil, the administrator-in-chief of the Austrian telegraphs, although himself the author of a telegraph, which has procured for him a world-wide and well-deserved fame, with a magnanimity which does him high honor, has given his opinion in favor of adopting the American system in Germany." The following is a translation of the official act:

"*Extract from the protocol of the Convention of Deputies from the German Governments which met at Vienna in the month of October*, 1851, *for the establishment of a German Telegraph Union, &c.*

"The governments of this Union give their mutual assurance to bring into operation, at the latest on the 1st of July, 1852, the direct transmission of telegraphic communications between the stations of the respective governments, so that transfers upon intermediate stations will be no longer required, whenever the lines are not previously occupied, so that each of the central stations can enter into communication with every other.

---

* A company has been formed in England to make gas from the decomposition of water by electricity.

"To accomplish this, all the governments of the Telegraph Union adopt for the international correspondence upon each line, for the present, Morse's telegraph, with receiving magnets, registers, and uniform alphabet."

The telegraph, as a messenger, has a wide scope of duties to perform; and as a motive power, on land and on sea—in the machine-shop or as a domestic drudge—there remains for it yet stupendous achievements in store. As a messenger, the multiform character of its performances and their detail, are as amusing and novel as they are instructive and necessary in their ends. In tho United States especially the great value of the telegraph is known and appreciated; for here it ramifies a country extending almost from perpetual frosts to eternal spring—from where snows and mountains of ice usurp more than half the year, to where the cactus and magnolia bloom nine months of the twelve. Here it is opposed by no obstacles which it does not surmount—mountains, rivers, forests, lakes, present themselves, and are triumphantly overcome. It leaps thousands of miles of distance at an impulse, and will, ere long, muse along the rivers of the mighty prairies and the wastes and solitudes which yet divide the population of the Atlantic ocean and the Pacific.

Let us take isolated and promiscuous instances of the utility of the telegraph, as a messenger and economist of time. On the occurrence of the recent Norwalk tragedy, a dispatch was forwarded from the station at that place, announcing the particulars of the fact. In an hour, the intelligence had spread over the whole Union, and had been repeated in almost every family circle before the close of the day. The reader is left to infer the appalling consequences of the affair in the agency it produced; but the blow fell upon the community almost simultaneously, and not by the slow and unequal process of the mails. This example will suffice for all of a similar character; and, heartless as it may seem, we deduce from the circumstances attending the casualty business reflections. If the announcement had been left to the tardy process of the mails, what evils might have flowed in the sequel, in the retarding of contracts, breaking of agreements, postponing projects of enterprise, confusing preconcerted business arrangements, and causing a loss of time and treasure to thousands! "I was so unfortunate," wrote a merchant in New York, shortly after the accident, to his correspondent in Philadelphia, "as to hear of P———'s death by the affair, just in time to defer my departure for Europe. Of course, owing to this lamentable occurrence, M———, in New Orleans, would make all due allowance, and hasten to prepare for the exigency," &c. This letter related to an extensive cotton contract, on which depended a heavy purchase of merchandise in Great Britain. The integrity of a business house of many years' standing would have been jeoparded by the results of the tragedy, had not information of it been thus early and promptly transmitted to New Orleans and New York.

Some time since, a feud arose between two rival business houses in New York. In suppressing names, we will style them respectively Messrs. A. & Co. and Messrs. B. & Co. A. & Co., who were extensive dealers, and had been long established, were much annoyed by B. & Co., who had just gone into business on a large capital, and who took unfair means to obtain a portion of the former's patronage. A. & Co. had been induced to purchase largely of the paper of a third firm, which paper they indorsed, and used in their legitimate transactions. Subsequently, this firm suspended payments, and closed its doors. A. & Co. of course became responsible; and B. & Co. being aware of this, collected the paper, with what object, except to humiliate the elder firm, cannot be conjectured. But a sudden pressure ensued; and during the crisis, the paper having gone to maturity, B. & Co. presented it for redemption. A. & Co. at once resorted to the telegraph. By 2 o'clock the next day, owing to the promptness with which their dispatches had been responded to, they were in a condition to redeem their indorsed paper, without "the street" having been made aware that, twenty-four hours previously, they had suffered any pecuniary inconvenience whatever. The telegraph served them faithfully. They preserved their mercantile integrity, were enabled to continue their business without having excited an unjust suspicion that would have proved fatal to them, and in whose fall might have been dragged into bankruptcy other houses, whose engagements extended widely over the mercantile and industrial community.

We are not to regard these matters in the light of individual affairs merely, but consider them, as they should be considered, practically allied in their bearings with the general wealth, happiness, and prosperity of a people.

Last winter two years ago, a vessel, bound from Liverpool, was stranded off the eastern coast of Maine. It had been driven from its course by contrary winds; and being caught and wedged in by icebergs, was badly treated, and ultimately driven toward the shore in a leaky or sinking condition. Information of the threatened fate of the vessel and crew was obtained by a fisherman, who instantly dispatched intelligence of the fact to the nearest telegraph station; and in due time, while he prepared to render what assistance he could, relief came in the shape of two steam-tugs; and vessel and cargo, with a crew and passenger list of twenty-five to forty souls, were saved.

In a country in which industry and the arts are progressive—in which business is spread over a vast area, and thousands of miles interpose between one commercial emporium and another—the telegraph answers to a use the complexion of which is unique, and of American origin. A case occurs in point. A merchant, doing business in a town somewhere in Michigan, entered a wholesale store in New York, and stated that he was desirous of purchasing a lot of goods, on which he was prepared to pay fifty per cent., but not more. He had come to the metropolis, intending to deal with a firm with whom he had had previous transactions; but he ascertained, not, however, until after his arrival, that the firm had dissolved and retired from mercantile life—nor had he been able to obtain their address, for the purpose of having their recommendation. To an English ear, this would sound curious; it would look like the boldest assurance on one side, and—if a bargain were concluded on so uncertain a basis—of ineffable greenness on the other. But let us examine the matter more closely. A merchant, doing business two thousand miles from the seaport city where he purchases his goods, on being disappointed in the manner related, is placed in an awkward predicament. If he returns for testimonials, or waits for them from home, he incurs a heavy expense, and is subjected to a protracted delay. All this is a loss of money to him, which his limited means and the peculiar nature of his business will not justify. He is not merely a merchant, who dispenses his wares for cash or its equivalents, but a broker, commission dealer, and produce forwarder, in a small way. To him the farmer sells his grain, and expects his pay; the merchant in turn patronizes the miller, the shoemaker, the carpenter, and other local trades, who reciprocate by buying his teas, his coffee, his calicoes, and his cloths. Any supervening influence to interrupt this commerce, affects not merely a member of the federation of interests, but all. The delay of a fortnight, besides the absolute expenditure of money for his maintenance, subjects the merchant to a loss of the sale of his goods during that interval, and the lapse is equally injurious to the branches of industry we have named, which are somewhat dependent on the merchant's promptitude and early payment, for their prosperity. The merchant is aware of this, and of the two evils he makes the experiment of opening a credit with a house to whom he is enabled to pay only one half the amount of the bill he is constrained to run up. The wholesale dealer listens to his case, and tells him to call in the course of an hour or two. He next dispatches a clerk to the mercantile agency, to ascertain whether Mr. Tape's (the applying merchant's) name is in their books; and if so, to discover in what pecuniary estimation he is held at home. The books are examined; but the name of Mr. Tape does not appear. At once the mercantile agent, or one of his subordinates, writes by telegraph to his correspondent in the village in which the merchant resides—these agencies are thus well organized—and makes the necessary inquiries. In the course of half an hour, word is transmitted back—"Tape good for ten thousand dollars;" and when the merchant, at the end of two hours, returns, with doubt and anxiety in his looks, he is told to make his selections, for the firm have concluded to accept his application. Here is another valuable feature of the telegraph; and while it is thus made to act the part of messenger, in conveying intelligence of a favorable character, it is often converted into an informer for the prevention of wisely-concocted and stupendous frauds.

Prior to the establishment of telegraph lines in the United States, cotton and stock gambling was conducted on a scale of extensiveness unparalleled in the history of commercial dishonesty. It has been computed that forty millions of dollars were annually involved needlessly and unrighteously in these speculations, and which the telegraph has served to lessen probably to one-twentieth their former magnitude. The checks and restraints thus imposed, have compelled a withdrawal of resources, and their employment in healthier and less immoral pursuits. And we must still bear in remembrance, that where available means are rendered active, not individuals solely, but whole communities, are the recipients of the benefits which accrue, or partakers of the evils which fraudulent schemes entail.

An importer contemplates a voyage to England, to lay in a heavy stock of merchandise. He takes orders for himself and a friend who is engaged in another branch of business. He reaches New York, and is about going on board the steamer which starts for Liverpool in the course of an hour. A dispatch is received by him at the moment he is settling his hotel bill: "A. has failed; no prospect of meeting his liabilities." Thus the importer, instead of buying at a large outlay articles which he had been commissioned to purchase, saves his money and the time he would otherwise have wasted.

In the midst of heavy stock operations on change, a Philadelphia broker is informed by his Boston correspondent that "Massachusetts and Vermont Railroad stock unsaleable to-day at 60 cents. Rumored defalcation true—sell out at 60,"—or, "Rumored defalcation false—buy all you can at 60."

A person on a collecting tour, does not feel it important for him to neglect his calls, and return home every week to ascertain the domestic condition of his family. He is enabled, as frequently as he desires, to correspond by telegraph, without either inconvenience or heavy outlay. "Family all well? Anything new?" A few minutes after brings a reply: "Family all well. Nothing new." All this costs probably half a dollar, and the minds of the parties are relieved.

Mr. Morse mentions that, on the breaking out of the disturbances in Philadelphia in 1844, sealed dispatches were sent by express from the Mayor of that city to the President of the United States. "On the arrival of the express at Baltimore, the purport of the dispatches transpired; and while the express train was in preparation, the intelligence was sent on to Washington by telegraph, accompanied by an order from the president of the railroad company to prevent the burden train from leaving until the express train should arrive. The order was given and complied with. The express had a clear track; and the President and cabinet (being in council) had notice both of the fact, that important dispatches were on the way to them, and of the nature of those dispatches; so that when the express arrived, the answer was in readiness."

Again—"When the Hibernia steamer arrived at Boston, in January, 1847, with news of the scarcity in Great Britain, Ireland, and other parts of Europe, and with heavy orders for agricultural produce, the farmers in the interior of the State of New York, informed of the facts by magnetic telegraph, were thronging the streets of Albany with innumerable team-loads of grain almost as quickly after the arrival of the steamer at Boston as the news of that arrival could ordinarily have reached them."

During last autumn a company of English gentlemen suddenly made their appearance in Huntington county, Pennsylvania, and made proposals of an apparently advantageous nature to the proprietors, for the purchase of three or four well-known iron works in that region. The prices offered exceeded by 20 per cent. what the owners had, a few months previously, agreed to dispose of them for. One furnace alone had been held for sale at $30,000, which, with its lands and improvements, had originally been valued at $300,000. A day had been set apart for the meeting of the respective parties, though no agreement had been concluded as yet. On the evening preceding the day specified, Messrs. V——, I——, & Co., the largest of the iron masters, telegraphed to New York to ascertain whether any extraordinary movement had recently taken place in the iron trade, of which they had not been advised. The answer reported everything stationary; but early the next morning the firm received the following dispatch.

> "*New York* July 1852.
>
> "Liverpool steamer Arabia just in. Reports a rise in English iron of 20 per cent. A farther rise of 10 per cent., soon talked of. Heavy demands from the continent, among which Russia herself."

The English capitalists had ascertained the condition of the iron trade on the continent before the news had become public there. They knew that the prospective demand for the article would be great, that prices would largely increase, that in the United States eight thousand miles of railroad were to be supplied with rails, and that, as furnaces and rolling-mills were selling at that time, an immense profit could be realized; and they hastened their departure to the United States for the purpose of anticipating the intelligence, and entering into a stupendous scheme of speculation. The opportune service of the telegraph, frustrated their plans, and prevented the transfer of a million dollars' worth of property at a lamentable sacrifice.

ART. VII.—ON THE CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY, AS EXHIBITED BY THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE AND ACCOMPANYING DOCUMENTS.

THE last Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, is one of the ablest documents ever emanating from that Department. It exhibits the financial affairs of the nation in a clear and business-like manner.

The estimated receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1853, were as follows

From customs,	$49,000,000 00
" lands,	2,000,000 00
" miscellaneous sources,	300,000 00
Balance in treasury July 1, 1852,	14,632,136 37
	$65,932,136 37
And the estimated expenditure,	60,560,056 86
Estimated balance July 1, 1854,	$5,372,079 51

This balance to exist after applying $7,199,477 77 to the redemption of the public debt.

The actual receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1853, were as follows, viz.:

From customs,	$58,931,865 52
" lands,	1,667,084 90
" miscellaneous sources,	738,623 89
Making the total receipts,	$61,337,574 40
Add balance in treasury July 1, 1852,	14,632,136 37
Total sum for the service for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1853,	$75,969,710 77

The actual expenditures for the fiscal year 1853, were, viz.:

Civil list,	$4,784,396 93
Foreign intercourse,	599,030 14
Miscellaneous,	11,792,369 70
Department of the Interior,	5,529,535 59
" of War,	9,947,290 87
" of the Navy,	10,891,639 59
Public debt,	10,482,555 39
	$54,026,818 21
Balance in the treasury July 1, 1853,	$21,942,892 56

The estimated receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1854, were as follows:

From customs,		$49,000,000 00
" lands,		2,000,000 00
" miscellaneous sources,		200,000 00
Add estimated balance July 1, 1853,		5,372,079,51
Total estimated sum for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1854,		$56,572,079 51
And the estimated expenditures were:		
Balance of former appropriations,	$6,879,883 28	
Permanent and indefinite "	9,172,829 68	
Specific appropriations asked for,	30,151,040 64	
		46,203,753 60
Which would leave an estimated unexpended balance in the treasury on July 1, 1854, of		$10,368,325 91

The actual receipts for the first quarter of the fiscal year 1854, ending September 30, 1853, were as follows (as appears by statement B.), viz.:

From customs,	$19,718,822 00
" lands,	1,489,562 05
" miscellaneous sources,	147,994 87
Making total receipts,	$21,356,378 92
To which add the actual balance in the treasury on the 1st July, 1853.	21,942,892 56
Making the total sum of	$43,299,271 48

The actual expenditures for the same first quarter were as follows, viz.:

Civil list, foreign intercourse, and miscellaneous, &c.,	$4,381,091 62
Interior Department, Indians, and pensions,	846,213 01
War Department,	2,935,861 40
Navy Department,	3,140,129 35
Redemption of public debt,	3,778,088 32
	$15,081,383 70
Leaving a balance in the treasury September 30th, 1853, of	$28,217,887 78

The estimated receipts for the second, third, and fourth quarters of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1854, are as follows:

From customs,	$37,000,000 00
" lands,	3,000,000 00
" miscellaneous sources,	300,000 00
	$40,300,000 00
To which add the balance in treasury Sept. 30, 1853,	28,217,887 78
Making a total sum of,	$68,517,887 78

The expenditures estimated by the departments for the second, third, and fourth quarters of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1854, are as follows:

Civil list and foreign intercourse, &c.,		$13,570,833 54
Deficiencies in the Post-office Department,		1,895,445 63
Interior Department,		2,629,350 10
War Department,		12,874,817 22
Navy Department,		8,135,280 67
Public debt (interest),		3,145,556 00
" (redemption),		15,000,000 00
Total estimated expenditures,		$57,251,283 16
This will leave an estimated balance in the treasury on the 1st of July, 1854, of		11,266,604 62
The balance of the appropriations for the year ending June 30, 1853, which remained unexpended on that day, and which is liable to be expended in the year ending June 30, 1854, is		17,630,758 75
The specific appropriations for the year amount to		34,051,269 58
The indefinite appropriations for the year, are, as far as ascertained by actual payment to Oct. 1, 1853,	$5,100,425 75	
As estimated for the residue of the year,	6,365,526 95	
		11,465,952 70
Making the whole amount of appropriations liable to be expended in the year 1854,		$63,147,981 03

The estimated receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1855, are as follows:

From customs,	$51,000,000 00
" lands,	3,500,000 00
" miscellaneous sources,	500,000 00
Making the sum of,	$55,000,000 00
Add the estimated balance in the treasury on the 1st of July, 1854,	11,266,604 62
This makes the total estimated resources for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1855,	$66,266,604 62

The estimated expenditures for the same year are as follows:

Balance of former appropriations, which will be expended this year,	$6,865,126 44
Permanent and indefinite appropriations,	8,285,716 14
Specific appropriations asked for this year,	35,909,434 54
	$51,060,277 12

This sum is composed of the following particulars, viz.:

Civil list, foreign intercourse, and miscellaneous,	$12,161,436 09
Expenses of collecting revenue from customs,	2,200,000 00
" " from lands,	129,900 00
Deficiency in the revenues of the Post-office Department,	2,700,000 00
Army proper, &c.,	11,989,397 50
Fortifications, ordnance, arming militia, &c.,	2,049,334 00
Improvements, &c.,	311,500 00
Indian Department,	1,784,471 84
Pensions,	1,876,072 95

Naval establishments, including dry docks and ocean steam mail contracts,	$12,712,358	74
Interest on the public debt,	3,145,806	00
Making in all the sum of,	$51,060,277	12
Leaving an estimated balance in the treasury, July 1, 1855, of	$15,206,327	50

To be increased about ten millions by that part of the appropriations not expended within the year, and subject to any reduction that may be made in the tariff for half the year, or to any sum which may be applied to the public debt during the year.

The public debt on the 1st of July, 1852, was as follows:

Loan of 1842,	$8,198,686	03
" 1843,	6,222,931	35
" 1846,	4,999,139	71
" 1847,	26,214,050	00
" 1848,	15,740,000	00
Texan indemnity,	5,000,000	00
" not issued,	5,000,000	00
	$71,374,807	09
Old funded and unfunded debt,	114,118	54
Treasury notes outstanding,	132,161	64
Debt of corporate cities,	780,000	00
	$72,401,087	27

The sums paid for redemption of the public debt during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1853, and the premium, &c., were as follows:

Loan of 1842,	$167,495	60
" 1843,	4,296,862	50
" 1846,	68,200	00
" 1847,	1,688,650	00
" 1848,	193,300	00
Total stock redeemed,	$6,394,508	10

Premium on the same, $420,498 64; since which time, and up to 3d December, 1853, the public debt has been reduced to $56,336,157 52, leaving the public debt on the 3d December, 1853, as follows:

Loan of 1842,	$6,872,135	54
" 1843,	92,800	00
" 1846,	4,048,400	00
" 1847,	20,738,700	00
" 1848,	14,444,491	80
Texan indemnity,	4,887,000	00
" not issued,	5,000,000	00
Debt of corporate cities,	24,000	00
Old funded and unfunded debt,	114,118	54
Treasury notes outstanding,	114,511	64
	$56,336,157	52

In relation to the redemption and purchase of the public debt, and the amount of premium paid for it, from the first of July, 1852, to the third of December, 1853, it appears that $3,342,150 was redeemed and purchased from the 1st July, 1852, to the 4th of March, 1853, and $12,722,779 75 from the 4th of March, 1853, to the 3d December, 1853.

In relation to the mode of doing business by his predecessor, Mr. Guthrie observes:

Within a few days after the 4th of March, 1853, it was ascertained that the sum of $1,750,000 had been advanced by my predecessor to a broker in New York, and $493,000 to a firm in Washington, for the purchase of the public debt.

These accounts have been closed, in part by the transfer of the stock agreed to be purchased, and in part by replacing the money in the public treasury. There has been no loss from these transactions; but it was considered that such an advance of money to agents for the purchase of the debt was of doubtful policy, and might become hazardous, and lead to a misapplication of the public funds, and to favoritism. It was determined not to continue that method of redeeming and purchasing the public debt. Public notice was at once given that the $5,000,000 loan of 1843, bearing five per cent. interest, and redeemable on the 1st July, 1853, would be redeemed at the treasury on that day, or at an earlier period, as set out in the notice; and that interest would cease on it from and after the 1st July, 1853.

In regard to the foreign trade of the country, he remarks:

The imports of the fiscal year 1853, including specie, have been $267,978,647, and the exports have been $230,452,250. A fair estimate of profits on our exports and the freight of our vessels would cast the balance of this account in our favor, without estimating the money brought in by emigrants, of which no account is taken. It is believed that a large stock of imported merchandise remains in the hands of the merchants; and for that reason, and because of the stringency in the money market, both here and in England, it is calculated that there will be, during the remaining three quarters of the year, a diminished importation, compared with that of the first quarter.

The estimate for the fiscal year 1855 has not been made to exceed that of 1853, for the reason that it is believed that the causes of diminished importations during the latter part of the fiscal year 1854, will be extended into a part of the succeeding fiscal year, and because the agitation of a reduction of the tariff will have a tendency to prevent importations beyond the actual demand for consumption.

Most articles of manufactured merchandise, like the annual productions of agriculture, are necessarily consumed within the year, and again restored by productive industry for the succeeding year; and, with a population able to pay there is a great uniformity in the annual amount of imports and exports. There are often causes, however, which prevent a regular and progressive increase, such as short crops, low prices for exports, either at home or abroad, without the disturbing influence of war. Still, it is believed that the receipts of the fiscal year 1855 will be sufficient to meet the expenditures of the year, and a reasonable purchase of the public debt, and justify a reduction of the duties by adding to the free list and reducing the tax upon many other articles of importation.

A table accompanies the report, showing—

The foreign articles imported free of duty, and their value, for the six years from 1848 to 1853, inclusive, and also the foreign articles imported paying duty, with their value and rate of duty, for the same time.

Another table—

Exhibits a separate list of the foreign articles, which it is proposed shall be added to the free list for the purpose of reducing the revenue. The revenue collected from the article in the first table for the last year, is about $8,000,000, in which amount, it may be computed, the revenue will be reduced, by the adoption of the proposed additional free list.

The following are some of the principal articles which it is proposed to admit duty-free:

Name of Articles.	*Amount Imported.*	*Am't duty Yielded.*
Arsenic,	$30,523	$4,500
Barks used for Medicine and Tanning	318,000	47,720
Brimstone,	186,000	29,000
Books,	723,221	144,700
Mahogany, and all Ornamental Woods and Firewood,	463,000	92,600
Brazil Woods, other Dyewoods in Sticks,	355,380	17,000
Cochineal,	414,000	41,000
Cordilla, or Hemp of Tow or Flax, cwt.	1,562,000	78,000
Cream of Tartar,	311,000	60,000
Engravings, Etching, or Plate,	107,000	10,000
Flaxseed and Linseed,	633,000	65,000
Hatters' Furs,	1,627.000	162,000
Hair,	358,000	35,000
India Rubber,	681,000	68,000
Indigo,	1,281,000	120,000
Ivory,	238,000	12,000
Linens,	8,897,317	1,760,000
Oil of Palm, Cocoanut, and Olive,	455,000	80,000
Rags,	$982,837	50,000
Raw Hides and Skins, of all kinds and in all conditions,	5,941,678	297,000
Salt,	1,059,000	210,000
Saltpetre and Potash,	1,309,000	97,000
Raw Silk,	712,000	106 000
Spices of all kinds,	802,000	346,000
Steel Bars, Cast, Shear, or German,	2,718,000	427,000
Tin, in Plates or Sheets,	4,709,000	705,000
Tin, in Pigs,	724,000	26,000
Watches and parts of Watches,	3,217,000	321,000
Zinc Spelter or Teutenegue,	628,000	62,000
Wines, except Champagne and adulterated Wines,	2,114,000	845,000
Opium,	346,000	172,000
Sulphate of Quinine,	223,000	44,000
Soda Ash,	845,000	189,000
Wool worth less than 10c. per lb.,	674,111	201,000

These reductions of the tariff, Mr. Guthrie says—

> Will leave the revenue larger than a proper and economical administration of the government will require; and for the purpose of further reduction, it is now proposed to arranged the articles paying duty in two classes; the one class to pay what may be considered the high duty of 100 per cent., and the other class to pay the moderate duty of 25 per cent., and to include all imported articles not in the free list, nor in the table K of high duties. This equalization will reduce the revenue about $4,500,000. This still leaves the revenue, computed upon the imports of 1853, at about $45,000,000 from customs; below which point it is not proposed to reduce the duties until the public debt is paid. The change now proposed in the rate of duty is designed to take effect from and after the 1st January, 1855.
>
> The effect of making the duties 25 per cent. on all articles imported not included in the free and higher lists, will be to give greatly less trouble in the collection of the revenue, and to raise the duties on some articles and reduce them on others. When the duties are raised, the change may act in restraint of importation, and when reduced, in their favor; and the one result, to some extent, will counteract the other. The proposed reduction, had it been applied during the last year, would leave an abundant revenue for all the reasonable wants of the government in time of peace, and allow the proper addition to the army and navy to meet the exigencies of an augmenting population and an increasing commerce, and leave the receipts from the sale of public lands to be applied to the purchase of the public debt, to which these proceeds are pledged by law.
>
> It is not proposed to enter into any extended argument to prove that the articles in table I. should be added to the free list, nor to prove the propriety of the proposed reduction of duties to the uniform standard of 25 per cent. When revenue is not needed, articles of general use for manufacturing and other purposes, not the growth or production of the United States, or but partially so, should not be taxed; and no higher taxes should be levied on other importations than may be necessary for the economical wants of the government, thus leaving commerce as free and unrestricted as possible. Let the tariff be reduced as Congress, in view of the present wants of the government, shall deem best, the increasing population, production, industry, and enterprise of the nation will still necessarily add to the importations, and consequently to the revenue, what shall be needed for increased expenses.

In regard to free trade Mr. Guthrie observes:

> The tables accompanying this report exhibit the free lists of England, France, Belgium, Portugal, Brazil, Austria, Spain, Russia, Cuba, the Zoll Verein, Chili, Netherlands, Hans Towns, Norway, Mexico, and Sweden, and mark the progress of free trade among commercial nations. Unrestrained commerce, binding the nations of the earth in stronger bonds of peace by mutual benefits, has numerous and increasing advocates in this and other commercial countries. The principle of free trade may not yet be sufficiently verified from experience, in this and other nations, to justify its full adoption, but the progress towards free trade now proposed, will be justified, it is believed, by both public opinion and public interest. It is considered that the taking off the duty on the raw material used in our manufactories will counteract the reduction of duties on foreign manufactures, and when compared with the operations of the present tariff, will not materially affect the interests of domestic industry or commerce.

Respecting the iron question, Mr. Guthrie remarks:

> It is not proposed to change the principle of *ad valorem* duties, but it is for the consideration of Congress, whether a specific duty on iron, made from the average of the last three or four years' *ad valorem* duties, might not give greater stability to the iron business, and more satisfaction to consumers, and, at the same time, prove equally beneficial to the revenue.

Mr. Guthrie also recommends that the fishing bounty be repealed.

A table of tonnage accompanying the report shows that our tonnage is now 4,407,010 tons, and exceeds that of any preceding year by 268,000 tons.

Regarding the operations of the mint, the report shows—

> The entire coinage to 31st October last to have been $370,008,192 50; the gold coinage, from the 1st January to the 31st October of the year 1853, to have been $45,998,945 60, and the silver coinage $6,996,225, and proves an active and growing demand for gold and silver as a currency for actual use; whilst the imports of gold and silver, including what is brought to the Atlantic from California, without estimating for that brought in by emigrants, compared with the exports ol gold and silver, prove that, within four years, the large amount of $135,972,095 73 has been added to the gold and silver coin remaining in the country. Should this increase continue for but a short term of years, this country will be able to dispense with banks of issue and their attendant evils, and have the gold and silver currency contemplated by the Constitution. The operations of the mint and its branches for the past year show a very favorable result; and the recoinage of silver has, in many places, removed the inconvenience arising from small bank notes and want of change. It may reasonably be expected that the supply, in the course of a few years, will be ample, and extended to every section of the country.

A new species of money is suggested by the Secretary. He says—

> It is thought that a coinage of an alloy resembling German silver may be beneficially substituted for the copper, and experiments to that end have been directed. Should they prove favorable, the result will be presented during the session.

The Custom House and Assay Office at New York are alluded to. Additional buildings for these objects have been rented, for fifteen years at $53,000 per annum.

The remainder of the report is occupied by an exhibit of the internal affairs of the department, which is represented in a healthy condition in all its branches.

The coast survey has extended to all the States and Territories of our coast, and the fund for that object has been judiciously expended. The estimates for the light-house service for the ensuing year are set down at $890,033 42, and for the ensuing year at $906,161 43.

Attention is called to the $5,000,000, balance of the $10,000,000, agreed to be given to Texas in the settlement of the boundary of New Mexico, and not yet issued, but retained under the proviso to the boundary bill.

A statement is also given showing the advances from the Treasury on account of the expense of each Custom House in the United States, during the year ending June 30th, 1853, from which we learn that there was advanced to the Baltimore Custom House, $142,706; to the one at Annapolis, Md., $1,871 29; to Vienna, Md., $584 99; to Havre-de-Grace, Md., $267 52; to Georgetown, D. C., $3,905 25; to Alexandria, Va., $6,131; to Richmond, Va., $6.235 47; to Norfolk and Portsmouth, Va., $26,928 64; and to Petersburg, Va., $5,616 31. Total to all the Custom Houses in the United States, $1,245,617.

LAND OFFICE REPORT.

In this document we find the following exposition of the affairs of the office regarding the public domain:—

In the fiscal year ending the 30th June last, were sold for cash,	1,083,495.21	acres.
Located with military warrants	6,142,360.00	
" with other certificates	9,426.66	
Making a total thus disposed of	7,235,281.87	
In addition to these, there were reported under Swamp Land grant	16,684,253.26	acres.
And for internal improvements, railroads, &c.	1,427,457.68	"
Making an aggregate of	25,346,472.81	"
For the Quarter ending September 31, 1853,		
There were sold for cash	1,295,185.36	acres.
Located with bounty land warrants	1,148,280.00	"
	2,443,465.36	"
Reported under swamp-land grant	2,527,694.20	"
Railroad grants	70,116.00	"
Making an aggregate of	5,041,276.56	"
This shows an increase for the last fiscal year, compared with the preceding, in sales and locations, of	2,365,215.00	"
And including swamp land selections of	12,231,818.00	"
The increase for the third quarter of the current calendar, and the corresponding quarter of the previous year, of	567,562.00	"
And including swamp land selections, is	910,123.00	"

These statements have reference only to the lands east of the Rocky Mountains; for although land districts have been established in California and Oregon, and extensive surveys have been made there, which have added materially to the correspondence of the office, no lands have yet been reported as disposed of in those districts.

The number of land warrants under the laws of 1837, 1850, and 1852, granting bounty lands, is 266,042, embracing 25,384,640 acres. The number of warrants located has been 199,095, embracing 20,666,520 acres of land. The number of outstanding warrants is 66,947, embracing 4,778,120 acres.

The report of the Surveyor-General of Oregon and Washington Territories has not been received. About 2,000,000 of acres in those territories have been surveyed.

Mr. Guthrie recommends—

> That all persons who rendered military service in any war in which the United States have been engaged since 1790, without reference to length of service, be allowed an amount of land which, with that previously granted, would be equal to the quantity of a quarter section, or one hundred and sixty acres.

He also recommends that a grant of land be made to the District of Columbia for educational purposes; and gives some interesting statistics showing the influence which railroads exercise upon the value of lands.

> The great increase in sales and locations of land for the last fiscal year, and in the third quarter of the current calendar year, mentioned in a former part of this report, has occurred in those States where railroads have been projected and grants made for them, or where such works are in contemplation, or by the proposed construction of the Sault Ste. Marie canal. As evidence of this fact, I would state that the lands withdrawn from sale in Illinois, to enable that State to select those granted to her by the act of 20th September, 1850, were again brought into market in July, August, and September, 1852, deducting, of course, the 2,595,053.14 acres selected by her under that grant.

During the fiscal year ending the 30th June last, in that State there were sold for cash	298,861 acres.
Located with land warrants	2,509,120 "
Total	2,807,981 acres,

> Being about one and a quarter million more than all the lands sold (excluding the locations of warrants) during the preceding fiscal year, in all the land States and Territories. This increase would no doubt have been greater if the main body of these lands had been in market in the beginning of the last fiscal year, which was not the fact. The following statement of the amount of sales for cash, along the route of this road in the several districts in Illinois, from the time these lands were thus brought into market in 1852, to the 30th of September, 1853, more strongly evinces the effect that road has had upon the sale of these lands:
>
> The second column contains the number of acres sold at the double minimum; the third, the number of acres sold above the ordinary minimum, and above and below the double minimum; and the fourth, the average number of years that these lands were in market, at the minimum of $1 25 per acre, from the time originally offered to 1850, when they were withdrawn from the market:

District.	Acres.	Acres.	Years.
Chicago	28,400	2,000	13
Dixon	21,480	160	9
Danville	125,240	40,360	19
Vandalia	69,520	320	28
Palestine	7,920	720	28
Shawneetown	3 680	200	34
Kaskaskia	27,840		34
Springfield		4,560	20
Total	284,080 48,320	48,320	
Aggregate	332,400		

> In Missouri, the lands along the supposed routes of the several railroads for which grants were made by the act of the 10th June, 1852, were withdrawn from market on the following day. As those roads had not then been located, these reservations were made more extensive than the lateral lines mentioned in the act, to enable the State to select the best route for each. The excess outside the fifteen-mile limits, ascertained after the survey of the roads, was restored to market on the 5th July, 1853, and hence could only affect the sales for the third quarter of that year. The following statement shows the amount of land sold during that quarter, and in the corresponding quarter of the three preceding years, in each district:

District.	1850. 3d quarter.	1851. 3d quarter.	1852. 3d quarter.	1853. 3d quarter.
St. Louis	4,958 68	18.022.54	1,903 73	*41.308.67
Palmyra	5,253 28	17,672.89	709.92	34,469.65
Fayette	3,786.09	9,178.04	89.52	28,765.76½
Clinton	10,730.20	17.311.04	none.	104.627.93
Jackson	5,546.01	9,468.58	5,879.48	16,858.62
Springfield	4,848.71	15,218.05	13.36	53,891.43
Plattsburg	9,750.04	17,593.90	994.07	15,035.23
Milan	3,375.47	6,883.14	2,050.39	†23,882,16

Here, although the lands sold were fifteen miles or more from the route of the road, the increase has been very great; and I have no doubt, when the alternate sections within six miles, and those between the six and fifteen-mile limits, are brought into market, that the increase will be equal to that of Illinois.

In Mississippi, the sales have been very limited for several years. On the 20th September, 1850, the lands in Augusta and Columbus districts, along the proposed route of the Central Railroad from Chicago, in Illinois, to Mobile, in Alabama, were withdrawn from market, and were not again thrown open to entry until the 26th September, 1853, for the Augusta district, and 19th September, 1853, for the Columbus district. In the former district there were but five days left in that month for sales to be made, and in the latter twelve days. The September return being the last received from those districts, I have caused a comparison to be made between sales for that month in 1853, and for the same month in the four preceding years, and the result is as follows, to wit:

Augusta, September, 1849	424.95	acres
Augusta, September, 1850	311.47	"
Augusta, September, 1851	40.65	"
Augusta, September, 1852	2.48	"
Augusta, September, 1853	19,530.47	"

These 19,530 acres, at $1 25 per acre, would amount to $24,413 09; but the actual amount received was $34,056 78, making an increase over the ordinary minimum of $9,643 69.

In the Columbus district this comparison is as follows, to wit:

	Cash sales.	Warrants located.	Total acres.
September, 1849	$1,722 58	636.65	2,359.23
September, 1850	1 907 69	359.31	2,267.00
September, 1851	611 90	632 60	1,244.50
September, 1852	824 74	2,316 51	3,151.25
September, 1853	16,664 04	5,840.69	22,504.73

In the Sault Ste. Maria district, in Michigan, the entries for the second and third quarters of 1852 amount to 40,689.65 acres; and for the second and third quarters of 1853, to 89,073.81 acres.

This great and extraordinary increase in the amount of lands disposed of in these several sections of the country, remote from each other, can only be accounted for by the improvements referred to: in fact, so great is the increase in the value of lands, that land warrants and land scrip are nearly up to the par or face value. If, then, no other reason existed for such grants, this one, on the score of sound economy, would be sufficient. Many of these lands, however, have been in market long enough for the interest to amount to much more than the principal; and during all this period the States were deprived of the right and benefit of taxation. The lands donated for the construction of these improvements, and those thus entered, must, of necessity, be cultivated, to enable the holders to pay the taxes, and from this legitimate source of revenue great pecuniary benefit will be derived by the States. This cultivation, as a matter of course, will increase the amount of grain and stock in the country; and, with these increased facilities for sending those products to market, will reduce the price of living, and thus benefit the whole community. They will also reduce the price of transportation for the manufactures and imports of the seaboard, and so reduce the price of those articles to the settler, and proportionally increase the quantity used, and of course the profit to the manufacturer and importer. The mail facilities furnished by these lines of intercommunication will be of great advantage to the government and

---

* No sales in August, 1853, there being no register.

† No sales in July, 1853.

the entire community; and in case of war, if hostilities were brought to our own borders, the advantages furnished by them for transporting men and military stores are almost inappreciable. Another and very great benefit derived from these improvements is, the amount of capital and labor carried into the hearts of the several States by their construction. Hundreds of thousands of laborers can find constant employment on them; and each, by a very small amount of labor, can secure the blessings of a "homestead," without feeling degraded by having it conferred on him as a gratuity, even if it were constitutional thus to benefit a few at the expense of the many, or compatible with the pledges heretofore given in relation to the public lands.

REPORT OF THE POSTMASTER-GENERAL.

From this valuable and lengthy document, it appears that—

On the 30th September last, there were in operation within the United States 202 railroad routes; their aggregate length was 13,410¼ miles; and the cost of mail transportation thereon $1,645,432 23, being at the rate of $120 26 7-10 per mile. Include the pay of mail messengers, route and local agents, the whole expense of this service is increased to $1,869,264 78, or $139 38 1-10 per mile.

On estimating other kinds of service in the same manner upon the aggregate length of routes, it is discovered that the average cost of steamboat service is $34 45 per mile; coach service, $22 88 per mile; and of modes not specified, $7 86 per mile.

Our local mail service on the Pacific is strongly marked by two peculiarities, especially in California—very high prices and great difficulty in giving that people the mail facilities which they require. At the same time, it appears from the reports that the performance of the service under the contracts is characterized by fidelity and energy—qualities which are put in great requisition by the flooded state of the roads at particular seasons of the year.

The present cost of transportation in steamboats in California is about thirteen cents eight mills per mile; in coaches, about twenty cents per mile; and in modes not specified, about thirty-four cents six mills per mile; while the cost of similar service in the United States, excluding Oregon, New Mexico, and Utah, is, in steamboats about nine cents per mile, in coaches about five cents and five mills per mile, and in modes not specified, about four cents and seven mills per mile.

The most striking discrepancy appears on comparing these prices, which the government pays in California, with those which it receives for the same work—I mean the rates of postage. The one is graduated to the highest scale of prices, and the other to the lowest. For a single letter of half an ounce the department receives six cents when prepaid, and ten cents when unpaid, and for each pound of printed matter, which comprises a very large proportion of the contents of the mails, about five cents a pound; the cost to the department for transportation across the Isthmus alone being twenty-two cents a pound. The necessary consequence is that the cost of mail service in California greatly exceeds the revenue it yields.

The financial condition of the post-office department is not as flattering as it ought to. Congress must look into its affairs and devise some means of improvement. The following exposé will show our readers the true state of things:—

The government employs constantly eighteen special agents from whose observation the department is enabled to determine what service is required in the different States, and how the service is performed. It is an important part, also, of their duties, to see that the postmasters properly perform their duties, and report a want of ability, attention, or fidelity on their part, or on that of contractors, promptly to the department. Some suggestions are made for the classification of these agents, that their services may be rendered more valuable to the department.

The expenditure of the department during the last fiscal year, as stated by the auditor, amounts to $7,982,756 59, viz.:

Compensation to postmasters,	$1,406,477 05
Additional compensation by act 3d March, 1851,	414,525 10
Ship, steamboat, and way-letters	28,105 83
Transportation,	4,906,308 05
Wrapping paper,	41,458 94
Office furniture,	3,241 50
Advertising,	79,346 00
Mail bags,	49,308 53
Blanks,	71,056 22
Mail locks, keys and stamps,	14,733 80
New mail locks and keys,	18,935 54
Mail depredations, and special agents,	55,275 43
Clerks for offices (the offices of post-masters)	509,820 24
Official letters received by post-masters,	472 41
Postage stamps,	3,664 50
Stamped envelops,	10,391 03
Post-office laws, list, &c.,	1,670 00
Repayment for dead letters,	34 26
Payment to letter carriers,	113,017 73
Postage stamps returned, old issue,	68 05
Stamps on hand overcharged,	85 90
Miscellaneous payments,	116,408 30
Miscellaneous account of British postages,	132,592 08
Miscellaneous account of Bremen postages,	3,565 09
	$7,982,756 59

The gross revenue of the year from all sources, amounted to $5,940,724 70, viz:

Letter postage, including foreign postage and stamps sold,	$4,473,227 54
Newspapers and pamphlets,	611,333 42
Fines,	82 50
Emoluments accounts of postmasters,	38,386 01
Dead letters,	45 00
Damages from failing contractors,	1,384 00
Letter carriers,	113,017 73
Miscellaneous receipts,	3,248 50
Annual appropriations from the treasury, in compensation of mail services performed for the government,	700,000 00
	$5,940,724 70

It appears from the foregoing statements that the gross revenue of the year ending June 30, 1853, fell short of the expenditures during the year by the sum of $2,042,031 89.

The foregoing deficiency should be diminished by the sum of $53,504 48 due the United States to the 30th June, 1853, under the postal convention with Prussia, and increased by the quarterly balances due to Great Britain up to the same period, amounting to $128,550 79. This would leave the deficiency in the revenue of the year to stand at $2,117,078 20.

To supply the deficiency last mentioned, the department had at its disposal the following means, viz.:

The available balance to the credit of the department on the books of the auditor on the 1st of July, 1852	$566,632 57
The appropriations to supply any deficiency made by the act of March 31, 1851,	500,000 00
The appropriations made by the act of March 3d, 1853, to supply deficiencies of the year,	500,000 00
	$1,571,632 57

Leaving the further sum of $545,445 63 to be provided by Congress for the service of the year ending July 30, 1853.

The number of postage stamps issued to postmasters for sale during the fiscal years ending June 30, 1852, and June 30, 1853, is shown by the following statement:

Year ending June 30.	Denomination 1 cent.	Denomination 3 cents.	Denomination 12 cents.	Amount Dollars.
1852.......	5,489,242	48,410,035	237,042	1,535,630 51
1853.......	4,736,311	51,461,040	146,555	1,608,792 91
	12,255,553	99,871,075	383,697	3,144,431 42

The amount of postage stamps sold during the year ending June 30, 1851, was $1,316,653 37, and the sales during the year ending June 30th, 1853, amounted to $1,629,262 12, leaving in the hands of postmasters unsold $108,605 71.

During the quarter ending 30th September, 1853, there were issued to postmasters for sale—

464,350 note-size 3-cent stamped envelops.
8,118,250 letter-size, 3-cent " "
15,000 " 6-cent " "
181,080 official-size, 6-cent " "
Amounting in all to $295, 292 69.

It is estimated that the expenditures of the current fiscal year will amount to $8,716,601.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE NAVY.

The United States Navy consists of the following squadrons:

The Home Squadron, Commodore Newton, consists of the flag ship, the frigate Columbia, Commander Pendergrast; sloops of war Albany, Commander Gerry, and Cyane, Commander Rollins; steamers Fulton, Lieut. Watson, and Vixen, lately commanded by Lieut. Swarthout. This latter vessel was dispatched in the month of May to Tampico, on special duty, and on her return to Pensacola, was put out of commission, on account of the appearance of yellow fever on board, which, in its fatal progress, deprived the service of many excellent officers and faithful men.

The Brazil Squadron, Commodore Salter, consists of the flag ship Savannah Commander Mercer, which sailed from Norfolk for her destination, on the 14th of September, and the sloop-of-war Jamestown, Capt. Downing.

The Mediterranean Squadron, Commodore Stringham, consists of the flag ship, the frigate Cumberland, Commander Harwood, sloops-of-war St. Louis, Commander Ingraham, and Levant, Commander Turner, to which vessel he was transferred from the Cumberland upon the return of Commander Goldsborough to the United States, to take command of the Naval Academy.

The East India squadron, Commodore Perry, consists of the steamer Mississippi, Commander H. A. Adams, his flag ship; the steamers Powhatan, Captain McCluney, and Susquehanna, Commander Buchanan; the sloops-of-war Macedonian, Commander Kelley, Saratoga, Commander Walker, and Vandalia, Commander Pope; the storeship Supply, Lieut. Arthur Sinclair, Southampton, Lieut. Boyle, and Lexington, Lieut. Glasson. Commodore Aulick, whom Commodore Perry succeeded in the command of this squadron, returned to the United States early in the year. The extraordinary revolutionary movements agitating the millions of China, and threatening the overthrow of the present dynasty, and the hope indulged of the dawning of a new era in the history of the trade and commerce with that singular people, impart unusual importance and interest to the movements of this squadron.

The Pacific squadron, Commodore Dulany, consists of his flag ship, the frigate St. Lawrence, Commander William W. Hunter, and the sloop of-war Portsmouth, Commander Dornin. The sloop-of-war St. Mary's, Commander Baily, left Philadelphia on the 15th of October, to join this squadron. In addition to these vessels, the receiving ship Warren, Lieut Stanly, at San Francisco, and the stationary

> storeship Fredonia, Lieut. J. D. Johnston, at Valparaiso, are under the command of Commodore Dulany.
>
> Besides the employment of the vessels of the Navy in this squadron, the expedition for the survey and reconnoissance, for naval and commercial purposes, of parts of Behring's Straits, of the North Pacific Ocean; and the China Seas, authorized by Act of Congress, of August 3d, 1852, which was placed by my predecessor under the command of Commander Ringgold, should be mentioned. It consists of the sloop-of-war Vincennes, Lieut. Roland; the brig Porpoise, Lieut. B. B. Davis; the steamer John Hancock, Lieut. John Rogers; the storeship John P Kennedy, Lieutenant Collins; and the tender Fenimore Cooper, Master H. K. Stevens. This expedition left the United States in June, and when last heard from, had reached Simon's Bay, Cape of Good Hope, and was doing well.

In speaking of the squadron to the Mediterranean, the Secretary observes:

> In calling to your attention the movements of this squadron, I cannot omit an especial reference to the conduct of Commander Ingraham, while in command of the St. Louis, at Smyrna. An ocean of several thousand miles separated him from his country, and his small ship was alone in bearing his country's flag. Violence was committed on the personal liberty of a man entitled to the protection of that flag. The perpetrators of the offense outnumbered him in vessels, guns and men. It was a moment of peril, involving honor and life. With prudence and discretion, yet with promptness and spirit, and marked determination, Commander Ingraham gave the protection, and the man is free. Such conduct under such circumstances, surely entitles an officer to the most significant evidence of the Government's approval.

The Secretary speaks in terms of high commendation of the National Observatory; and of the Naval Academy he says:

> This interesting institution is rapidly supplying the Navy with numbers of educated and accomplished young men, whose early training, discipline, and instruction under the guidance of learned professors and experienced officers, particularly fit them to adorn the service. The beneficial results already witnessed, demonstrate satisfactorily that it is now sustaining the same relations to the Navy that the West Point Academy bears to the army. It is well worthy of the fostering patronage of the government.
>
> There are now at the Institution 116 students. The first class, under the regulation of 1850, will graduate in June next.

The increase of the Navy is again recommended.

> The American Navy consists of about seventy vessels, embracing all, from the ships of the line to the smallest brig, schooner, and store ship. Of these, many ships of the line, frigates, steamers and sloops of war, are not only unfit for service, but I am advised by the Bureau of Construction, Equipment and Repairs, that they are not worth repairing. There are not now in the Navy forty vessels which could be brought into service in ninety days, if needed. There is no steamer in the Pacific or African squadrons, but one, of two guns, in the Brazil squadron; and we have no steamer of more than ten guns.

The Secretary is decidedly opposed to the restoration of flogging in the navy.

The necessity of large additions to our steam navy is urged at length, and the establishments of machine shops at the naval stations in the Atlantic and in California is recommended.

A change in the system of promotions is also recommended.

> The estimates for the support of the Navy and the Marine Corps for the year ending June 30, 1853, and for all objects coming under the control of this depart-

ment, are in the aggregate $11,730,515 19. From which deduct special objects, including the transportations of the mails in steamships, $3,379,344, leaves for the support of the Navy and the Marine Corps, $8,351,171 19. The total amount drawn from the Treasury, during the fiscal year, was $12,091,120 87. Deduct re-payments, $1,111,454 79, leaves $10,979,666 08 as the total expenditure for all objects under the control of the Navy Department. But of this amount there was expended for special objects, the sum of $4,039,942 37—leaving, as the legitimate expenditures for the support of the Navy and Marine Corps for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1853, $6,939,723 71.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

This truly able document, embracing an exposition of so large a number of the public offices, is extremely well elaborated, and shows that all the affairs of the department are in a most healthy condition. The details of the report, we give under the head of the reports of the different offices belonging to the department. Of the public domain, Secretary McClelland says:

The entire area of the public domain is estimated at about 1,584,000,000 acres. That within the States (exclusive of California) is 471,892,439 acres.

Its purchase was effected at the rate of 14 41 cents per acre, amounting to - - - - - - - - -	$67,999,700
To this should be added the Indian reservations, which enter into the original cost, amounting to 3,400,725 acres, which, valued at $1 25 per acre, would make - - -	4,250,906
Up to the 30th June, 1853, 334,256,810 acres had been sold, at an expense of 2 07 cents per acre, making - - -	6,919,116
And 184,667,135 acres sold at an additional expense for selling, at 5 32 cents per acre, making - - - - -	9,824,291
The entire cost (including survey and selling) being - -	88,994,013
The whole amount accruing from sales up to 30th June, 1853, was - - - - - - - - - - - -	142,283,478

Being $53,289,465 more than the cost of the whole, thus far, inclusive of survey and sale.

Of the surveyed lands there have been granted—

For educational purposes, - - - - - - - - -	11,199,973	acres.
For military bounties, - - - - - - - - -	24,841,980	"
And for internal improvements, - - - - - - - -	16,607,013	"
Making - - - - - - - - - - -	52,648,966	"

There yet remain of the surveyed lands 96,940,709 acres, worth (after deducting the cost of selling yet to be borne), - -	$116,018,641
And 137,635,629 acres, worth (after deducting the expense of surveying and selling), - - - - - - -	161,873,263
Making - - - - - - - - - -	277,891,904
To which add the net profits received for lands actually sold,	53,289,465
And we find that, while the purchase, survey, and sale of the public lands will, in the end, have cost $88,991,013, the net amount which will have been realized therefor is the enormous sum of - - - - - - - - -	$331,181,369

It is thus shown that the general government, instead of being a loser, as many have supposed, by its connection with the public lands, has found them not only a source of revenue, but a ready means of promoting the cause of general education, and of bestowing well-earned rewards for military service.

In regard to the granting of public lands for the benefit of internal improvements, Secretary McClelland observes:

> There can be as little doubt of the constitutionality of such grants as of their propriety. The right to donate a part for the enhancement of the value of the residue, can no longer be justly questioned. The principle has been adopted and acted upon for nearly thirty years; and since experience has shown it to be productive of so much good, no sound reason is perceived why it should now be abandoned. It has been of incalculable importance to the great West, and, either directly or indirectly, to all the States.
>
> As many projects have been, and many others probably will be, presented to Congress by interested parties, it may be difficult, practically, to discriminate between those that are worthy and those that are not. Congress will have all the facts in each case before it, and, in its wisdom, will decide as in similar cases of legislation. By making every grant specific, and throwing proper guards, restrictions, and limitations around it, the object to be attained may be secured, and plans and combinations for mere speculation frustrated and defeated.
>
> Something is manifestly due to the hardy pioneer, without whose labor, industry, and enterprise the West would now be of little moment. No one who has not been an eye-witness can appreciate the hardships and privations endured by him, and government should certainly not hesitate to aid him, especially when it can be done without detriment to the other States, or to any other interests.

The Secretary makes a number of important suggestions for the improvement of the public service, which we presume will be adopted. Regarding the mineral lands of California, the Patent Office, the General Land Office, the Pension and Census Office, the Secretary speaks favorably, and recommends some important changes.

Secretary McClelland recommends the erection of buildings for the sole accommodation of the Department of the Interior. He says:

> Within a few years the Patent Office will need the main building and the two wings for its exclusive use. In the meantime a structure should be erected for this department; and as it consumes much time to complete such a building, sound policy should induce its immediate commencement. One sufficiently large and commodious, and entirely separated from the other departments, can be constructed in a plain, substantial manner for $250,000; and in the most approved style, with all the modern improvements, for less than half a million. Surely, at this time, there can be no more proper or profitable application of the public money. The considerations urging it are strong and apparent, and, it seems to me, cannot fail to convince every one who reflects upon the subject of its absolute necessity.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF WAR.

This is an elaborate and well-written State paper.

> It appears that the authorized strength of the army (as now posted), is 13,821, officers and men; but it will be seen by the accompanying table, prepared in the Adjutant-General's office, from the latest returns, that the actual strength is only 10,417. Of this number, 8,378 are employed in the frontier departments, or are now on the route to them.

The Secretary recommends:

> 1. An increase of —— per cent. of the present pay of the soldier.
> 2. An additional increase for each successive period of five years, so long as he shall remain in the army.
> 3. Provision for the promotion to the lowest grade of commissioned officers, of

such of the non-commissioned officers of the army as may be found qualified for, and by their conduct, character, and services, entitled to, such advancement.

The depreciation in the value of money, as measured by the wages of labor and the cost of all the necessaries of life, has been so great, that the necessity and propriety of the first of these measures must at once be apparent. The pay of the soldier is, relatively, less now than it was prior to the increase granted by the law of July 7, 1838.

The necessity and propriety of the second measure proposed, are believed to be equally great; but in order to elucidate it, it will be necessary to exhibit some of the data upon which this opinion is based. With regard to the proposed increase of pay for length of service, it is suggested:

1. That every soldier who, having been honorably discharged from the service of the United States, shall, within one month thereafter, re-enlist, shall be entitled to $2 per month, in addition to the ordinary pay of his grade, for the first period of five years after the expiration of his first enlistment, and a further sum of $1 per month for each successive period of five years, so long as he shall remain continuously in the army.

2. That soldiers now in the army, who have served more than one enlistment, shall be entitled to the benefits of this provision, according to the length of their continuous service; and that service during the war with Mexico, although for a less period than five years, shall be counted as a five years' service.

3. That soldiers who served in the war with Mexico, and received a certificate of merit for distinguished services, as well those now in the army as those that may hereafter enlist, shall receive the $2 per month to which that certificate would have entitled them if they had remained continuously in the service.

In regard to the Military Academy, the Secretary says:

The recommendation of the board to increase the academic term to five years, is one which has been frequently presented by preceding boards of visitors, and which is believed to be sustained by important considerations. The low standard of acquirement now fixed to entitle a cadet to admission, must often lead to the introduction of those whose previous education has been very defective; and the study of the scientific and military branches included in the course, leaves little time for the acquisition of that knowledge of international law, of language, and of literature, demanded by the interests of the service.

The officer of the army may often be required promptly to decide upon questions of national law, where errors would be seriously injurious to his country; and his reports and memoirs are the channels through which deeds most illustrating his country's history are transmitted to other people and to other times. To raise the standard of acquirement to be possessed previous to admission to the academy, would, in some degree, deprive the institution of its present popular character, by excluding those who, from the want of early advantages, could not then pass the preliminary examination. The grade of cadet, being the lowest in commission known to our army, should be, as it now is, within the reach of youths in every condition of life; and this, together with the fact that by the mode of appointment all sections and all parties are fairly represented, gives to the institution that character which should belong to it as a part of the military establishment of the United States. If, then, a more finished education than that which is to be obtained by the course now prescribed be desirable for the officers of the army, the recommendation of the board for an increase of the academic term, presents, it is believed, the least objectional mode of effecting that object. The estimates submitted for the current year are recommended to favorable consideration.

There are several other reports, which want of space precludes from being noticed in this number. They will be referred to at another time.

Art. VIII.—THE MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

No. 1.

LOWELL.

LOWELL—NUMBER OF ITS MILLS—ITS MANUFACTURING COMPANIES—AMOUNT OF CAPITAL EMPLOYED—NUMBER OF OPERATIVES—AMOUNT OF COTTON CONSUMED—QUANTITIES AND KIND OF PRODUCTS, ETC., ETC.

LOWELL is one of the manufacturing wonders of the age. It illustrates, in a remarkable manner, the well-known truth, that the prosperity of a country depends more upon the intelligence, enterprise, and industrious character of its inhabitants, than upon its soil and climate. Cold and barren New-England is, nevertheless, through the intelligence, enterprise, and the indomitable energy and untiring industry of its people, one of the wealthiest countries on the globe. The character of a people is every thing for a country's wealth. Mexico, and most of South America, are rich in soil, climate, and in every thing that a bountiful nature could bestow; but still they are the poorest countries in the civilized world, because they lack the one thing needful to make *any* country rich—an intelligent, honest, and industrious people. Spain, too, is a miserable, bankrupt, poverty-stricken nation; and why? Because her people are ignorant, unenterprising, and lazy. In the hands of the Anglo-Saxon blood, Spain would become one of the richest countries on the globe. Her mountains and valleys are full of wealth; her harbors are fine; her climate delightful; many of her rivers might be made navigable; all of them, indeed, afford inexhaustible supplies of water-power for manufactures; the soil of her valleys is rich, and capable of supplying the whole of Spain with bread, and of exporting besides. But for all these, Spain is miserably poor—a land of beggars and robbers—and compelled, through a natural laziness, encouraged by one of the worst governments in the world, to import bread to eat! How must Spain blush—perhaps she cannot blush—when she looks at our barren New-England, and sees how beautiful and happy, and how immensely wealthy the intelligence and industry of its people have made it!

But to return to Lowell. We propose to lay before our readers some account of its manufacturing industry, which has given it a world-wide renown. In 1828, only 25 years ago, Lowell was a little town of only 3,532 inhabitants. Its immense manufacturing facilities had before that time attracted the attention of enterprising capitalists; and the first—the Merrimack Manufacturing Company—went into operation there in 1823. In 1825, the Hamilton Manufacturing Company commenced operations; and, in 1828, the Appleton Company.

Lowell, in the rapidity of its growth, stands almost unrivaled. In 1820 it had less than 200 inhabitants. It was incorporated by the legislature of Massachusetts in 1826, with a territory of four square miles. The village of Belvidere being added to it in 1834, it has now about five square miles. In 1820, the valuation of its property did not exceed $100,000. In 1830, the population was 6,477; in 1840, 20,796, with property worth $12,400,000. In 1844, the population was 25,000.

Having recently received some very interesting and authentic statistics regarding the manufactories and manufactures of Lowell, up to January, 1853, we shall embody them in this article.

The *Merrimack Manufacturing Company*, the first chartered in Lowell, has now a capital stock of $2,500,000. It has in operation six mills, and print works; 71,072 spindles; 2,114 looms; and employs 1,650 females, and 450 males. It manufactures 377,000 yards of various kinds of fabrics per week. It consumes 84,000 lbs., or 210 bales of 400 lbs. each, of cotton per week! The number of yards dyed and printed per week is 335,000. The goods chiefly manufactured by this company are prints and sheetings, No. 21 to 40.

The number of tons of anthracite coal consumed by this establishment annually is 8,500 tons; charcoal, 35,550 bushels; wood, 400 cords; and of oil, 7,260 gallons. There are also consumed by it, for manufacturing purposes, 205,000 lbs. of starch per annum, and 850 barrels of flour.* The water-power is applied by means of breast-wheels, 30 feet in diameter, and turbines 5 feet. The establishment is warmed by steam. The present agent of this gigantic company is Isaac Hinckley, Esq.

The next oldest company is the *Hamilton Manufacturing Company*, with a capital of $1,200,000. It has four mills and their print-works; 47,198 spindles; and 1,340 looms. It employs 750 females, and 406 males. It manufactures 250,000 yards per week, and consumes per week 80,000 lbs., or 200 bales of cotton. It manufactures 110,000 yards of printed goods per week, and 36,000 of dyed. It manufactures principally prints, flannels, ticks, and sheetings. The agent of this company is JOHN AVERY, Esq.

---

* In addition to all these, the establishment consumes annually 1,000,000 lbs. of *madder;* 380,000 lbs. of *copperas;* 60,000 lbs. of *alum;* 50,000 lbs. of *sumac;* 40,000 lbs. of *soap;* and 45,000 lbs. of *indigo.*

The *Appleton Company* is the next oldest in Lowell, being chartered in 1827. Its capital is $600,000. It has three mills, running 17,920 spindles, and 700 looms. It employs 400 females and 120 males; and manufactures chiefly sheetings and shirtings, No. 14. GEO. MOTLEY, Esq., is the agent.

Next is the *Lowell Manufacturing Company*, chartered in 1828, with a capital of $2,000,000. It has three mills—a spinning, a carpet, and a cotton mill. It runs 5,650 woolen spindles; 8,050 cotton; 200 power carpet looms; 205 cotton looms, and 49 fancy-check looms. It employs 800 females and 500 males. It manufactures per week 25,000 yards of carpeting, 14,000 of plain stuffs, 90,000 yards of Osnaburgs, and 50 rugs. It consumes 50,000 lbs. per week of cotton, or 125 bales; and 66,000 lbs. of wool. It manufactures carpets, rugs, cotton cloth, and pantaloon stuffs. The agent of the company is SAMUEL FAY, Esq.

The *Middlesex Company*, chartered in 1830, has a capital of 1,000,000, and keeps in operation 4 mills and 3 dye-houses. It manufactures broadcloths, and plain and fancy cassimeres. It runs 16,340 spindles, and employs 730 females and 575 males. It manufactures, weekly, 24,000 yards of cassimeres, and 3,000 yards of broadcloth. It runs 75 broadcloth looms, and 328 for cassimeres. The amount of wool consumed is 33,000 lbs. per week. The Middlesex Company use annually 6,000,000 of teasels, 2,000,000 lbs. of fine wool, 50,000 lbs. of glue, $13,000 worth of soap, and $30,000 worth of dye-stuffs.

The *Suffolk* Manufacturing Company went into operation in 1832, with a capital of $600,000. It has three mills, and runs 17,528 spindles and 590 looms, which furnish employment to 400 females and 100 males. This establishment produces, weekly, 120,000 yards of drillings, to the manufacture of which it is exclusively confined. It consumes 50,000 lbs. of cotton, or 125 bales per week.

The *Tremont Mills* also went into operation in 1832, with a capital of $600,000. Their mills, 2 in number, manufacture sheetings and shirtings to the amount of 155,000 yards per week. They run 16,608 spindles and 620 looms, employing 400 females and 100 males, and consuming 115 bales of cotton per week.

In 1830 the Lawrence Manufacturing Company of Lowell was incorporated; but they did commence operations until 1833–4. Its capital is $1,500,000. It has 5 mills, running 44,800 spindles, 1,382 looms, and employing 1,200 females and 200 males. This immense establishment manufactures, of printing cloths, sheetings, and shirtings, 260,000 yards per week, and consumes, weekly, 237 bales of cotton, of 400 lbs. each.

Next in the order of time, is the establishment called the *Lowell Bleachery*, established in 1832, with a capital of $300,000. It employs 20 females and 250 males, and bleaches 5,000,000 lbs. of cotton goods per annum. It also dyes 15,000,000 of yards.

The *Boott Cotton Mills*, established in 1835, have a capital of $1,200,000, and 5 mills, running 51,866 spindles and 1,432 looms, employing 870 females and 262 males. It manufactures 300,000 yards of drillings, sheetings, shirtings, jeans, and printing cloths per week.

The *Massachusetts Cotton Mills*, established in 1840, have a capital of $1,800,000. It employs 6 mills, 45,720 spindles, and 1,571 looms. The number of females employed is 1,250, of males 300. It manufactures sheetings, shirtings, and drillings, to the amount of 475,000 yards per week. It consumes 150,000 lbs. or 375 bales of cotton per week, or 19,500 bales annually.

Such is a very brief outline of the immense manufacturing operations of Lowell, deservedly called the "*Manchester* of *America*."

To recapitulate: The total amount of capital employed at Lowell, at the present time, is *thirteen millions of dollars;* the number of mills is 51; the number of spindles running is 342,722; the number of looms, 10,606; of females employed, 8,470; of males, 4,143. The goods manufactured, per week, are 2,087,000 yards of cotton, 27,000 yards of woolen, 25,000 yards of carpeting, and 50 rugs. The amount of cotton consumed per week, by all the mills, is 705,000 lbs., or 1,762 bales, making the annual consumption of cotton, by the Lowell mills, amount to 94,624 bales. The quantity of wool consumed is 99,000 lbs. per week, or 2,574 tons annually. The amount of goods produced by the mills annually, is as follows:

Cottons, ...	118,524,000	yards.
Woolens, ...	1,404,000	"
Carpets, ...	1,300,000	"
Rugs, ...	2,600	"

But these are not all the manufactures of Lowell. Besides these, other manufactures are produced there, of various kinds, to the value of $1,500,000, employing a capital of $400,000, and about 1,500 men. The *Lowell Machine Shop*, established by the companies, in 1840, for the manufacture of cotton and woolen machinery, locomotives, steam-engines, machinists' tools, mill work, &c., employs a capital of $600,000, and 700 men. It consumes 705,000 tons of wrought and cast iron per annum. This establishment can furnish the machinery, complete, for a mill of 6,000 spindles, in three months; and a mill can be built in the same time.

We must not omit to notice in this sketch of the manufactures of Lowell, exhibiting so much laudable and successful enterprise, the extensive Powder Mills of Oliver M. Whipple, Esq., and the Paper and Batting Mills of Perez O. Richmond, Esq., both on the Concord River, within the precincts of the city. Messrs. Fiske & Norcross' extensive Lumber Yard and Saw Mills, on the Merrimack, are also worthy of notice.

The wages of the Lowell operatives are as follows:

Average wages of females clear of board, per week,	$2 00
Average wages of males clear of board, per day,	0 80

There are two institutions for savings—The Lowell and the City. The Lowell had on deposit, the first Saturday in November, 1850, from 4,609 depositors, $736,628 12. The City, January 8th, 1853, had on deposit from 2,374 depositors, 492,006 01. The operatives in the mills are the principal depositors in the above banks.

The several manufacturing companies have established a hospital for the convenience and comfort of persons employed by them respectively, when sick, which is under the superintendence of one of the best surgeons and physicians.

Before closing this notice of Lowell, it may be well to add a few more of the latest statistics. It has four banks: the *Lowell*, with a capital of £300,000; the *Railroad*, capital $600,000; the *Appleton*, capital $150,000; and the *Prescott* capital $100,000. In 1850 the population of Lowell was 33,385, having an increase of 12,589 in 10 years. The estimated population of Lowell, in 1853, is 37,000.

To show how large a place Lowell occupies in the manufacturing field of the United States, it may be added, that the entire capital invested in cotton manufactures, in the whole United States, is estimated at $74,000,000; of which Lowell, alone, has nearly $14,000,000, or nearly *one-fifth* of the whole.

ART. IX.—COMMERCIAL AND FINANCIAL.

The financial condition of the country continues to improve, taking the New York banks as the index of the monetary movements. The operations of those banks, from the 21st of June to the 24th of December, 1853, were as follows:

	Loans.	Deposits.	Circulation.	Specie.
June 21	$95,520,656	$50,018,171	$9,964,106	$12,174,502
Aug. 6	97,899,617	59,410,756	9,510,465	9,746,452
Aug. 13	95,562,277	58,166,712	9,451,945	10,654,612
Aug. 20	93,866.807	57,317,658	9,424,786	11,102,551
Aug. 27	92,386,953	57.431,803	9,427,191	11,319,047
Sept. 3	91,741.338	57,502,960	9.554,294	11,268.049
Sept. 10	91,108.347	57,545,164	9,517.336	11,388,691
Sept. 17	90,190,589	57.612,301	9,566.723	11,860,234
Sept. 24	90,092,765	58,312,334	9,477,541	11,340 925
Oct. 1	90,149.540	57,968,661	9.521,665	11,231,912
Oct. 8	89,128.998	57,985.760	9,673.458	10,266,602
Oct. 15	87.837,273	59,068.674	9,464,714	11,330,172
Oct. 22	85.367,981	55,748,729	9,388,543	10,303,254
Oct. 29	83,400,323	53,335,462	9 300,350	10,866,672
Nov. 5	83,092.630	55,500,977	9,492,158	11,771.880
Nov. 12	82,882,409	56,201.007	9,287,629	12,823,575
Nov. 19	83,717,622	57,446.424	9,151.443	13.691.324
Nov. 26	84,802.530	58,673.076	9.932.769	13.343.196
Dec. 3	85,824,756	58,435 207	9.133.586	12,830,772
Dec. 10	86,708.028	57.828 076	9.075,704	12,493,760
Dec. 17	87,865,073	58.312,478	8.939.830	12,166,020
Dec. 24	88,766,402	58,154,302	8,872,764	12,074,499

From this it appears that there was a continual decline of loans down to the 12th of November, when they began to increase. During the fortnight ending December 17, the increase of loans was $2,000,000, while deposits and specie, during the same time, decreased 1,000,000 each. The movements of the Bank of America from July 11th to December 17, citing Mr. Kettell, were as follows:

	Capital.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due B'ks.
June 11	$2,000,000	5,289.817	1,584.124	218,582	2,613,335	3.296,423
Sept. 17	2.000,000	4.669.828	998.833	326,235	2,114.624	2 265,242
Dec. 10	2,000,060	3,428,263	1,035,658	165,519	2,325,325	—

This bank called in loans to September 17, $619,989, and paid out $645,291 in specie, and 107,653 circulation—together, $1,372,433. Of this, $498,711 was paid to depositors, $873,722 to banks on balances. From September 17 to December 10, the bank received from loans $1,241,565 and $210,701 from deposits, together, $1,432,266, of which, $100,000 was specie, and the balance, $1,332,000, must have been paid to country banks on balances, which would reduce the amount to $900,000, against $3,296,423 in July. The large exports of produce will probably, after the fall goods have been paid for, leave larger balances than ever with our banks, to be again employed for speculation.

The arrivals of gold from September 3d to December 31st, from California, at New York, and its shipments thence during 1852 and 1853, together with the balance in treasury at the close of each week, and the rates of sterling, were as follows:

	1852				1853			
	Received.	Expor'd.	Sterling.	In Trea'y.	Received.	Expor'd.	Sterling.	In Trea'y.
Sept. 3.	3,029,001	243,970	10 a10¼	6,967,126	..	3,618	9 a 9¼	9,079,000
" 10.	..	795,187	10¼a10½	6.569,874	1,446,523	416 956	9¼a 9½	8,907,000
" 17.	1,320,182	347.630	10¼a10½	6,733,253	683,937	10,000	8¾a 9¼	9,825,000
" 24.	..	734,742	10¼a10⅜	7,175,556	..	561.116	9 a 9⅜	10,189,300
Oct. 2.	..	462.998	10¼a10⅜	7,278,211	1,845,826	252,501	9½a 9¾	9,726,400
" 8.	2,024.950	817,119	10¼a10½	6,958,190	1,000,000	1,325,480	9¾a10	9,399,400
" 15.	2.000 000	316.792	10¼a10½	6,375,399	2,034,361	996,780	9¾a10	8.562,200
" 22.	150,000	787,823	10¼a10⅜	5.973.889	..	1,932 414	9½a 9¾	8,124 000
" 29.	2,300,000	75.535	9¾a10¼	5,904,788	3,000,000	502,963	8½a 9½	7,732,417
Nov. 4.	..	149.773	9 a10	5,936,252	..	1,561,231	9 a 9¼	6.838,519
" 11.	2 195,888	51,651	9 a10	5,801 265	2,652,475	461.123	9 a 9¼	6,280,360
" 19.	300,000	436,389	9 a10	5.549,063	..	525,052	9¼a 9½	5,951,760
" 26.	..	32.610	9 a10¼	5,360,385	..	636 400	9½a 9¾	5,190.046
Dec. 3.	2,710,000	593,660	9 a10¼	5.403,952	2,434,823	688,466	9¾a 9⅞	4,847.551
" 10.	..	277,180	10¼a10½	5,451,007	..	898,114	9½a 9¾	4,728,943
" 17.	2,596 140	374,350	9¾a10¼	4,459.948	3,126,000	1.232,352	9½a 9¾	4,307,099
" 24.	354.000	35,000	9¾a10¼	2.902.708	1,430,910	1,375.000	9 a 9¼	4,007,523
" 31.	511,880	174,160	8¾a10	2,607,471	..	500,000	9 a 9¼	3,832,406
	$19,492,031	6,709,563			$19,654,855	13,899,566		

The export of specie, monthly, from New York to foreign countries, from January 1st, 1853, to December 24, 1853, as compared with 1852, is as follows:

EXPORTS OF SPECIE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS.

	1852			1853		
	Export.	Bank of England Rate.		Export.	Bank of England Rate.	
January	$2,868.958	10 a10½	3	$747,679	8¾a 9¼	3
February	3.551,543	10 a10½	3	1,121,020	9¾a10	3
March	611,994	9¾a10¼	2½	592,479	8 a10	3
April	200.266	9 a 9⅞	2½	767,055	8¾a 9¼	3
May	1.834,893	9¾a10¼	2	2,162,467	9½a10	3
June	3,556,355	10¼a10½	2	3,264,282	9½a 9¾	3½
July	2.971.499	10¼a10½	2	3,924,612	9½a10	3½
August	2,935.833	10¼a10⅝	2	1,183,673	8¾a10¼	3½
September	2,122,495	10 a10½	2	1,244,192	8¾a 9¼	4½
October	2,452,301	10¼a10½	2	4.757.972	9½a10	5
November	809,813	9 a10	2	3,855.775	9 a 9¼	5
December 3d	593,660	9 a10¼	2½	688.466	9½a 9¾	5
December 10th	277,180	10¼a10½	2½	898.114	9½a 9¾	5
December 17th	273,375	9¾a10¼	2½	1,232,352	9½a 9¾	5
December 24th	35,000	9¾a10¼	2½	1,000,000	9 a 9¼	5
Total	$24,617,295			$21,751,971		

The imports of the year just closed, have been greater than those of any previous year since the commencement of the government, they having attained to the enormous sum of $93,499,086.

The figures for the three years are as follows:*

FOR DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Total imports	$54,442,896	$56,230,114	$84 724,748
Total ent'd for warehousing	8,454,208	5,426,030	8,774,338
Total ent'd at the port	$62 897 104	$61,656,144	$93,499,086

Showing an increase of $31,842,942 over last year, and $30,601,982 over 1851.

* U. S. Economist, Dec. 31.

Showing an increase of $31,842,942, over last year, and $30,601,982 over 1851.

The total imports and exports from New York, for each month in the year 1853, were as follows, as given by the *New York Times*, of January 2:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN GOODS AT NEW YORK.

1853.		1852.	
January	$13,408,000	January	$10,907,000
February	17.358,000	February	9,139,000
March	19,166,000	March	12,063,000
April	14,326.000	April	10,639,000
May	14,332,000	May	7,339 000
June	17,346,000	June	9.330,000
July	20,078,000	July	12,892,000
August	19.682,000	August	15,252,000
September	16.997,000	September	12,553,000
October	11,926,000	October	8,585,000
November	12,430,000	November	8,656,000
December, 28 days	12,967,000	December, 28 days	10,176,000
Total	$190,016,000	Total	$127,531,000
Increase 49 per cent			62,485,000
			$190,016,000

The proportion of imports at New York during the last Treasury year, to the whole amount brought into the United States, was 67 per cent. At this ratio, the total imports for the calendar year would be

67 per cent. at New York	$190,016,000
33 per cent. at other ports	93,589,000
Total	$283,605,000

EXPORTS DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK.

1853.		1852.	
January	$2,995,000	January	$2 419,000
February	3,325,000	February	3 353,000
March	4,705,000	March	4,313,000
April	4,224.000	April	4,244,000
May	4,166,000	May	4,250,000
June	5,057,000	June	3,566,000
July	4,883,000	July	2,966,000
August	4,540,000	August	2,341,000
September	5,579.000	September	3,289,000
October	5,459,000	October	3,498,000
November	7,489,000	November	3,529,000
December, 28 days	6,876,000	December, 28 days	2,948,000
Total	$58,298,000	Total	$40,716,000
Increase 43 per cent.			17,582,000
			$58,298,000

The proportion of domestic products exported from New York during the fiscal or Treasury year, was 23 per cent. to the whole export of the country. This year the ratio will be increased by reason of the enlarged movemet of grain and flour, and the proportion of the cotton ports of the South correspondently diminished, assuming the average price of cotton to be no higher than last year.

The annexed statement exhibits the value of goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, exported to foreign countries during the year ending June 30, 1853:

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES—VALUE OF EXPORTS.

Product of the Sea.			
Fisheries:—			
Oil, spermaceti		$1,418,845	
" whale and other fish		223,247	
Whalebone		1,063,705	
Spermaceti candles		112 600	
Dried or smoked fish		371,607	
Pickled fish		89,409	
			$3,279,413
Product of the Forest			
Wood:—			
Staves, shingles, hewn timber,&c.	$2,578,149		
Other lumber	123,743		
Masts and spars	129,628		
Oak bark and other dye	118,894		
Manufactures of wood	2,294,122		
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine	1,406,488		
Ashes, pot and pearl	334,321		
		6,985,345	
Ginseng		133,813	
Skins and furs		796,101	
			7,915,219
Product of Agriculture.			
Of animals:—			
Beef, tallow, hides, and horned cattle	2,214,554		
Butter and cheese	862,343		
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, and live hogs	6,202,324		
Horses and mules	246,731		
Sheep	17,808		
Wool	26,567		
		9,570,327	
Vegetable food:—			
Wheat	4,354.403		
Flour	14,783,394		
Indian corn	1,374,077		
Indian meal	709,974		
Rye meal	34,186		
Rye, oats, and other small grains, and pulse	165,824		
Biscuit or shipbread	454,020		
Potatoes	152.569		
Apples	107,283		
Rice	1,657,658		
		23,793,388	
			33,363,715
Cotton			109,456,404
Tobacco			11,319,319
Hemp			18,195
Other agricultural products:—			
Flaxseed		7,719	
Hops		40.054	
Brown sugar		33.856	
Indigo		36	
			81,663
Manufactures:—			
Wax		113,602	
Refined Sugar		375,770	
Chocolate		10,230	
Spirits from grain		141.173	
" " molasses		329,381	
Molasses		17.582	
Vinegar		20,443	
Beer, ale, porter & cider		64,677	
Linseed oil		15,468	
Spirits of turpentine		347,492	
Household furniture		714,556	
Hats		91,261	
Saddlery		48,229	
Tallow candles and soap		681,342	
Snuff and tobacco		1,671,560	
Leather boots and shoes		673,708	
Cables and cordage		103,216	
Gunpowder		180,048	
Salt		119,729	
Lead		5,540	
Coaches and other carriages		184,497	
Iron, pig, bar, and nails		181,998	
" castings		220.420	
" all manufactures of		2,097,234	
Copper and brass, all manufactures of		108,205	
Medical drugs		327,073	
			8,844,404
Cotton piece goods:—			
Paint'd or col'd	1,086,167		
Uncolored	6,926,485		
Cotton, thread and yarn	22,594		
All manufactures of	733,648		
		8,768,894	
Flax and hemp:—			
Cloth and thread		2,924	
Bags and all manufactures of		13,860	
Wearing apparel		239,733	
Earthen and stoneware		53.685	
Combs and buttons		31,395	
Brushes of all kinds		6,612	
Billiard tables and apparatus		1,673	
Umbrellas, parasols and sun-shades		6,183	
Morocco & other leather not sold by the pound		6,448	
Fire engines and apparatus		9,662	
Printing presses & types		32,250	
Musical instruments		52,397	
Books and maps		142,604	
Paper and stationery		122,212	
Paints and varnish		83,020	
Glass		170,561	
Tin		22 988	
Pewter and lead		14,064	
Marble and stone		47,628	
Gold and silver, and gold leaf		11.873	
Gold and silver coin		23,548,535	
Artificial flowers and jewelry		66.397	
Trunks		27.148	
Brick and lime		32,625	
			33,515,361
Coal			336,003
Ice			175,056
Articles not enumerated:—			
Manufactured			3,788,700
Raw produce			1,324,205
Total			$213,417,697

The following is a condensed view of the exports of the United States during the last four years:

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Products of the sea	$2,824,818	$3,294,691	$2,382,342	$3,279,413
" " forest	7.442,503	7.847.822	7.864,229	7.915,259
Agriculture	10,549,383	7,399.755	6,323.439	9,570.327
Vegetable food	15,822 373	16,877.844	19.886,568	23.793.368
Cotton	71,084.616	112,315,317	87,965,732	109,516.404
Tobacco	9,951,023	9,219,251	10,031,281	11.319,319
Cotton goods	4.734,424	7.241,205	7,672,151	8.768.894
Other manufactures	11,591,094	14,432,053	12.805,185	15,766,148
Total goods	$134.900,233	$178,620.138	$154,931,149	$189,869,152
Specie	2,046,679	18,069,590	37,437,837	23,548,535
Grand total	$136,946,912	$196,689,728	$192,368,906	$213,417,697

This gives the fact that, notwithstanding gold has become a staple product, and has been much in demand in Europe in the past year, $15,000,000 less was exported, and $35,000,000 more of other produce was exported. As compared with the fiscal year 1852, the gold exported was as follows:

	1852.	1853.
Gold at Philadelphia Mint	$50,590,155	$55.640,557
Exported	37 437,837	23 548,535
Surplus deposits	$13,152,318	$32,092,022

The exports of manufactures bear a large proportion in the increase; that of cotton goods alone has nearly doubled in four years, and all other manufactures have increased 50 per cent. Both lead and gold have been used in the country to a greater extent than exported. These are facts which indicate the fallacies of the clamor about large imports and "over-trading."*

The exports of flour from New-York to foreign ports during the past year, including the last week of December, as compared with 1852, were as follows:

Ports.	1852		1853	
	Bbls.	Value.	Bbls.	Value.
Liverpool	7 850	$40,607	17,673	$127,968
Glasgow	3,954	21,747	5,574	39,518
Havre	..	..	37,532	262,385
Marseilles	..	..	3,636	26,375
Hamburg	..	..	25	167
Bremen	5	25	..	..
Africa	..	..	35	263
China	..	..	160	1,590
B. N. A. Colonies	2,064	11,800	860	5,894
British West Indies	1,074	5,937	437	3,003
Danish West Indies	..	..	25	143
Dutch West Indies	295	1,574	..	..
Cuba	..	..	475	3,569
British Guiana	206	1,096	..	..
British Honduras	114	639	..	..
Venezuela	190	4,241	340	2,042
Brazil	309	2,795	..	..
British Australia	3,450	22,769	..	..
Total	20,098	$113,220	66,774	$472,917

---

* U. S. Economist, Dec. 31.

	1852		1853	
	Bbls.	Value.	Bbls.	Value.
Total in December	91,330	$489,727	281,121	$2,056.577
Total in November	130,304	634,565	391,818	2,761.746
Total in October	89.883	419,061	180,733	1.296.496
Total in September	130,933	574,888	186,835	1.096.328
Total in August	146,071	591,562	183 027	954.881
Total in July	140,976	574,965	193,877	915,815
Total in June	177,244	751,533	113.156	545,755
Total in May	111,868	492,946	65,609	334,774
Total in April	58,343	264,467	130 449	657,562
Total in March	76,305	376,521	167,562	937,491
Total in February	52.774	255,992	121 706	719,804
Total in January	32,396	149,779	96,689	570,236
Previously	1,218,259	$5,462,786	2,045 802	$11.488,431
Total since January 1	1,238,357	5,576,006	2,112 576	11.961,348
Increase	..	..	874,219	6,385,342

The following shows the exports of cotton from New-York during the past year, as compared with 1852, the first total in the table being the amount for the last week of the year:

To	1852		1853	
	Bales.	Value.	Bales.	Value.
Liverpool	3,460	$150,479	4,235	$197,197
Glasgow	..	..	35	1.290
Havre	..	..	136	5,200
Antwerp	..	..	176	7,578
Bremen	26	882	..	..
Hamburg	..	..	110	5,156
Total	3,486	$151,361	4,692	$216,421
Previously	330,980	12,389,955	281,292	13,714,326
Since January 1	334,466	$12,541,316	285,984	$13.980,747
Increase	..	..	..	1,389,431
Decrease	..	..	48,482	..

The total amount of breadstuffs exported from New-York since the 14th of May last, was 27,245 bbls.; value, $99,316. The following shows the amount of breadstuffs exported from the United States to Great Britain and Ireland since September 1, 1853:

From		Flour. Bbls.	Meal. Bbls.	Wheat. Bush.	Corn. Bush.
New-York, December	27	490,617	2,739	3,506,173	412,675
New-Orleans, "	17	11,435	..	..	74,386
Philadelphia, "	23	168,434	10,278	384.667	309.764
Baltimore, "	23	133,655	507	174 953	31,226
Boston, "	23	10,036	186	5,800	45,746
Other Ports, "	17	7,714	..	13,200	3,740
Total		821.891	13,710	4,084 793	897,725
Same time last year		366,284	3	2,407,261	56,600
Increase		455,607	13,707	1,677,532	841,125
Decrease		..	..	..	..

TO THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

	Flour. Bbls.	Wheat. Bush.	Corn. Bush.
From New-York to December 27	416,929	1,328,860	20.142
Other ports to latest dates	84,327	14,932	13,689
Total	501,256	1,343,792	33,831

Since the 1st of June last, the wheat and corn exported from New-York, including the last week of the year, was as follows:

To	1852 Bush.	1852 Value.	1853 Bush.	1853 Value.
Liverpool	50,076	$69,048	107.033	$174,060
Glasgow	..	..	44,491	83,320
Havre	..	..	60,879	106,102
Antwerp	..	..	9 681	14,070
Marseilles	..	..	7,563	13,623
Total	56,076	$69,048	229.647	$391,175
Total in December	295.521	341,193	1,026,370	1.740,002
Total in November	552.387	601,663	1,721,940	2,702.268
Total in October	549.316	496 625	1,147,679	1,667,238
Total in September	614,683	641,907	846,036	1.163.176
Previously	2,623,631	2,675,379	6.184,402	8,957,628
Since June 1	2,679,707	$2,744,427	6,414,049	$9,348,803

Exports of corn from New-York to foreign ports for the week ending December 29, 1853, compared with the corresponding week of last year:

To	1852 Bush.	1852 Value.	1853 Bush.	1853 Value.
Liverpool	..	..	126,244	$123,733
British West Indies	400	344	746	618
Total Corn	400	$344	126,990	$124,351
Total in December	9,018	7,068	375,900	284,218
Total in November	8,856	6,318	136,917	113,997
Total in October	9,764	6,759	6,518	5,716
Total in September	19,110	13,698	16,919	14,855
Previously	335,869	219,130	472,283	337,324
Since June 1	336,269	$219,474	599,273	$461,675

The following exhibits the exports of beef and pork from New York, for the last week of the year, and for the whole of 1853, as compared with 1852:

BEEF.	1852 Bbls. & Trces.	1852 Value.	1853 Bbls. & Trces.	1853 Value.
Liverpool	237	$4,266	1,157	$24,567
British West Indies	12	180	..	..
Danish West Indies	..	..	15	267
Central America	..	..	12	108
British Guiana	10	170	..	..
British Honduras	33	489	..	..
Total Beef	292	$5,105	1,184	$24,942
Total in December	4,295	76,162	4,463	80,622
Total in November	4,935	71,726	4,400	61,270
Total in October	1,116	14,678	2,732	26,774
Total in September	1,427	20,439	2,978	40,374
Previously	40,618	608,538	44,976	649,154
Since Jan. 1	40,910	$613,643	46,160	$674,096
Increase	..	..	5,250	60,453
PORK.				
Liverpool	..	..	200	3,500
Glasgow	..	..	33	500
Africa	20	220	22	269
British West Indies	56	924	6	90
Dutch West Indies	44	220	..	..
Danish West Indies	..	..	122	1,269
Central America	..	..	18	297
British Guiana	105	1,316	..	..
British Honduras	100	1,753	..	..
Porto Rico	75	1,132	31	407
Total Pork	400	$5,565	199	$2,332
Total in December	1,860	28.884	5,807	66,551
Total in November	5,955	92,374	5 560	80,218
Total in October	2.987	51,579	5,220	82,013
Total in September	2.800	54,101	6 556	84,787
Previously	39,423	639 910	70,765	980,058
Since Jan. 1	39,823	$645,475	70,964	$982,390
Increase	..	..	31,141	336,915

Such an immense interchange of products as has taken place during the year 1853, between this and foreign countries, is without a parallel in the annals of trade; and it seems to have been carried on upon a perfectly sound basis, since among all our importers not a single failure has occurred. Not even a stringent condition of the money market, ever since the 1st of August, has affected them seriously.

ART. I.—AGRICULTURE.

PRODUCTS OF CALIFORNIA AND MEXICO—AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT OF THE PATENT OFFICE—COTTON IN ALGERIA—CULTIVATION OF THE OREGON PEA—MEANS OF DESTROYING THE BOLL-WORM—MANUFACTURE OF COTTON-SEED OIL.

SINCE the publication of our last number we have had the pleasure of witnessing some of the agricultural products of California, of which we hear so much from time to time. Some of the accounts of these products have been looked upon as entirely unworthy of credit, or at least greatly exaggerated; but we have had ocular demonstration of their truth. It is known that efforts have been making, and are still made, by the commissioner of patents, to effect an interchange of natural products with other countries for the purpose of improving agricultural science in this country. To effect this object, circulars have been sent to all parts of the world, requesting persons to send to our government specimens of all of the agricultural products of their respective countries. This very inefficient means of effecting the object desired, has nevertheless resulted in some valuable and curious exchanges of products.

While visiting the agricultural department, recently, of the Patent Office, we had the pleasure of witnessing some of these exchanges from South America, Mexico, and from California. From Mexico we saw specimens of the *frijoler*, or Mexican bean; and from California we saw the ordinary potatoes of that country, long and cylindrical, a foot in length by from four to five inches in diameter. They resemble, in all but size, the potatoes (*solanum tuberosum*) of the northern States. California onions were also shown us, which measure about ten inches in diameter by three inches in thickness. Their shape is that of the common garden onion. The gigantic heads of the California wheat were also exhibited, alongside of which our cisalpine wheat is perfectly dwarf-like.

Those who visit Washington should not fail to pay a visit to the agricultural department of the Patent Office. It will richly repay them for their trouble.

The French Government has, within the last two years, been making considerable efforts to cultivate cotton in Algeria. A late number of the *Moniteur* says:

> The cultivation of cotton, in Algeria, is rapidly advancing. The magnificent impulse received this season is well known. From a few sparse plots, which it occupied last year, the culture this year (1853) has extended over more than 500 hectares (1,236 acres), and nothing could be more satisfactory than the reports with respect to it which have just reached us. If some failures, owing to the inexperience of planters, cast a shade over the picture, the crop in general promises to be all that can be desired, both as to quality and quantity. It may be considered as settled henceforth that the culture of cotton is acquired to the country. The problem is resolved. To time and to intelligence is now left the task of completing the development of this rich culture, which will in a few years emancipate French manufacturers from the dependence on foreign production in which they are now held for a most notable portion of the supplies they require. But the administration has not been alone in comprehending the magnificent resources offered by the colony for the supply of cotton. At its sitting of 15th February last, the Chamber of Commerce of Algiers voted 500 francs from the reserve fund, as a premium for the best cotton produced on plantations of a certain extent. The prize, which was warmly disputed by numerous competitors, has just been awarded to a colonist of the arrondissement of Blidah, whose plantation, comprising eight hectares (20 acres) was pronounced to be in the most prosperous condition. Eight other cultivators received honorable notices. The Manufacturers' Society of Mulhouse having repeatedly made use of the cotton and other products of Algeria, has shown its desire to co-operate for the encouragement of such agricultural enterprises in Algeria as seem of a nature to contribute at once to the prosperity of the colony and of the manufactures of France. The Society has just established premiums of gold and silver medals for the encouragement of the growers of cotton and of madder in the colony.

The Minister of War, at Paris, has established a permanent exhibition of the agricultural products of Algeria; and the government, on its part, has just established premiums to be awarded after each season to the planters who shall produce the finest crops.

Mr. A. B. Rozell, of Nashville, Tenn., has recently given the results of his experiments to test the utility of the celebrated Oregon pea. He says:

> "The pea grows on a bush from five to six feet high, with five or six large branches near the ground; and they, with the main stalk, put out other branches, until two stalks would make a bunch as large round as a tobacco hogshead, or near it. It grows more like cotton than anything else I know of, only it is much larger, and the branches not so horizontal. After leaving the ground a little, all these branches, with the branches they put out at every joint, bear from four to ten pods in a bunch, with about fifteen peas in a pod; so they are hung with peas pretty much from top to bottom. The leaves are very large and beautiful; and, taking it altogether, it is the most beautiful and rich plant I ever saw.

"The stalks and leaves make, perhaps, the finest hay in the world—stock preferring it to any other, and yielding a greater abundance than any other. The hay and pea together is a better and far cheaper feed than can be raised from anything else in the United States, for horses, mules, cattle, sheep, and hogs. I believe I can raise more and better feed for my stock from one acre of land than I can from five of anything I know of. It will grow on land so poor that it would produce little or nothing else; and tolerable poor land is better for it, and will produce more, than rich land. This may appear strange to some, but it is nevertheless true. Rich land will produce more stalk, but not so many peas; in this respect it is like cotton. As an improver of the soil, I consider it far superior to clover, or anything known in Tennessee, when fed off on the ground and then plowed in. Now, taking it altogether, I consider it one of the greatest acquisitions to the farmers of the valley of the Mississippi that have been introduced for the last thirty years; and I am of the opinion it will prove a greater blessing to the farmers of Tennessee, and surrounding States, than the many boasted railroads that are now being built among us, and that many of us are being heavily taxed to pay for their construction."

Mr. Rozell had part of his crop ready for market on the 2d instant. He would raise about forty bushels of peas this season. All the peas of last year's crop were sold at $2 per quart, or $1 per pint, or $80 per bushel. They can be had this year at $40 per bushel, or $1 per quart, or 50 cents per pint.

Prof. L. Harper, LL.D., of Alabama, has recently published in the *American Cotton Planter*, some valuable observations on the subject of preventing the ravages of the caterpillar, or boll-worm, in our cotton fields of the South. The ruinous devastations of this insect are known, by long and sad experience, to every cotton planter of the South; everything on the subject, therefore, is of interest. Whoever shall discover a mode of ridding the cotton fields of the South of this destructive animal will immortalize his name, and merit the perpetual gratitude of the entire cotton-growing world. We shall quote a few of the observations of Prof. Harper on this subject:

When the small-pox, says he, first appeared among the human family, thousands, yea, millions of men were hurried to the grave by that frightful scourge; whole cities and countries were depopulated, a remedy was despaired of, and safety was only sought in flight. By the exertions of skillful men the remedy has, nevertheless, been found, and the dreadful enemy of mankind is very nearly rendered harmless; not ten men die of small-pox now where formerly hundred thousands used to die. So it will be with the scourge of our cotton fields, but no exertions have hitherto been made to discover a remedy. In order to find it, the disease must be perfectly understood. We know, indeed, very little more of the boll-worm than that it is the larva of a noctua (night-swarming butterfly or moth), which feeds exclusively upon the green fruit of the cotton plant; it perforates the green bolls, creeps into them, eats the interior of them, especially the immature wool, and destroys every boll which it touches. It undergoes the same changes as all the other lepidopterous insects. The perfect insect, sylpha, butterfly, or moth, lays a large number of eggs, from two to three hundred, which hatch very soon after they are laid, and produce young caterpillars, or larvæ, generally called boll-worms; these feed upon the very young and tender cotton bolls, even when they are still surrounded by the flower. The young larvæ or caterpillars grow very quick, being so voracious as to eat in twenty-four hours, more food than their own weight. They are soon able to attack larger bolls, and then they devour whatever they can possibly perforate. When the caterpillars have attained their full size, and changed their skins three or four times, they leave the cotton plant, and undergo a second transformation into chrysalids, nymphæ, puppæ, or cocoons. In this state they take no nourishment. After having remained in this state a few days or weeks, they undergo the third and last transformation or metamorphosis, into sylphæ or butterflies, and the circle is complete.

That much we know from the analogy of other lepidopterous insects, and superficial observation; but that is by no means enough for finding a remedy against the fearful increase of the boll-worm. For that purpose it is absolutely necessary to know:

1. Where do these insects originate from?
2. Do they emigrate, or are they engendered by a *generatio spontanea, æquivoca* (by spontaneous generation), in the cotton fields and on the cotton plants?
3. Do these insects live during the winter, or hibernate?
4. In what state do they hibernate; as eggs, larvæ, chrysalids, or sylphæ?
5. Where do they hibernate?
6. Where are they in the spring and summer, until they make their visible appearance on the cotton plant?
7. Where do the sylphæ or butterflies lay their eggs?
8. When do the caterpillars generally make their first appearance?
9. What is the necessary state of the atmosphere for their appearance and increase?
10. What is the necessary state of the cotton plant for their appearance and increase?
11. Are there now years when no caterpillars or boll-worms appear?
12. What substances or elements are necessary for their existence?
13. What elements do they consist of?
14. What substances or elements are hurtful to them, &c.?

Not a single one of these questions can, as yet, be answered with any certainty; and it is, indeed, not an easy matter, as it will be perceived, to acquire sufficient information to answer them. This requires deep entomalogical and chemical skill, and a man's whole time and ingenuity must be devoted to these researches. But in that way, we may be certain *a remedy against the evil will be found out.*

As a means of obtaining answers to the above important interrogatories, and thus enabling the planter to protect his fields against the ravages of the boll-worm, Prof. Harper makes the following suggestions for the consideration *of the agricultural public, and especially the Agricultural Association and their Executive Council of the cotton-planting States:*

1. Let the time of inactivity be at an end, and declare at once war to the common and unrelenting enemy.
2. Let the Agricultural Association of the slaveholding States and the special Agricultural Societies of each of those States and their executive committees, take at once the matter in hand, and direct operations.
3. Let them appoint at once an entomologist and chemist for each of the cotton-planting States, but select men who are really skillful and reliable. Chemical knowledge is necessary in this case; for it will be requisite not only to analyze the cotton plant, and the soil in which it grows repeatedly; but an exact analysis of the boll-worm, and even the atmospheric air, may be necessary.

The State Entomologist and Chemist can then serve for two purposes:

a. To devote his whole time, skill, and ingenuity, during the spring and summer months, for entomological researches concerning the two enemies of the cotton plant, the boll-worm, and the army-worm, and to solve the questions above alluded to.

b. To act at the same time, especially during the winter months, as a *Chemist of the State*, and perform, according to the resolutions of the Agricultural Convention of the slaveholding or planting States drawn up at their meeting in Montgomery, Alabama, on Monday the 2d day of May, 1853, under the direction of the executive committee of the Agricultural Association of each of the slaveholding States, the analysis of soil, vegetable matter, manure, minerals, mineral water, &c., and have for that purpose a regular laboratory in a central and accessible place of the State.

Such a State Entomologist and Chemist has not only an *arduous task* to perform, but he has to keep a very extensive and dear apparatus, and to provide himself with a private conveyance in order to travel to places where his presence is required; he will even find it now and then necessary to have an assistant; he must, therefore, have not only a *very liberal salary*, but also a certain sum for the purchase and preservation of a costly apparatus.

4. The salary of such a State Entomologist and Chemist, and the purchase and preservation of an extensive entomological and chemical apparatus, require annually a good sum of money; and the question obtrudes itself—where shall the money come from? Nothing, really, is easier than to get the money for the above purposes. It would be wrong to lay any claims for that purpose on the State Treasury; for the employment of a State Entomologist and Chemist does not benefit the whole State: it benefits only a part of its inhabitants, the agricultural public; they have to pay it, and can do it with the greatest ease without even feeling it. I propose for that purpose—

5. Let every planter of the different slaveholding States pay from each bale of cotton which he makes the trifling sum of *two cents;* such a tax, trifling as it is for every individual, will amount, in the State of Alabama for instance, to very nearly $10,000 a year, and will be sufficient to pay the Entomologist and Chemist a salary of $5,000, sustain an apparatus, and have a handsome sum left for experiments, &c. In States where the cotton crop is not large enough, the tax must be higher. In order to enforce such a tax and collect it, it will be necessary to petition the Legislature to pass a law for levying such a tax, and have it collected by the tax collectors of the different counties, who may then pay it over to the Treasurers of the Agricultural Associations of the States.

6. As soon as all the States have appointed their Entomologists, they must meet at least twice a year, exchange their experience, and form plans for operations.

Alabama raises the largest quantity of cotton. She has the greatest interest in the destruction of the enemy of the cotton plant. Let her take the lead in the above undertaking, and the other States will certainly soon imitate her example.

Our attention has been recently directed to the subject of *Cotton-Seed Oil*, by an article in the *New Orleans Daily Delta*, from the pen of Dr. Edward Jenner Coxe, of that city. The superiority of cotton-seed oil for various purposes, is well known; and a silver medal was awarded to Mr. Wilbur last October, at the annual exhibition of the American Institute, held at New York, for a specimen of the oil which he exhibited. It is known to all, that the cotton seed of the entire cotton crop, is annually thrown away, as useless. Dr. Coxe shows conclusively, that, in so doing, the planters throw away what they might make worth to themselves more than $38,000,000, by manufacturing from the seed, oil, soap, &c.

"The conclusive proof of this assertion," says Dr. Coxe, "will be found in the following statement, furnished by Mr. Woodall, which corresponds with those made by Mr. W. P. Converse and myself.

The Cotton crop of the United States,	3,000,000 bales,
At an average weight, per bale, of 400 lbs., will yield of Ginned Cotton	1,200,000,000 lbs.
To each pound of Cotton there are of seed 3 lbs, giving	3,600,000,000 "
Retained for planting purposes, one-half, making	1,800,000,000 "
Leaving for manufacturing purposes, oil, soap, &c.,	1,800,000,000 "

Now, 100 lbs. of cotton-seed will produce 2 gallons of oil, 48 lbs. of oil-cake, and 6¼ lbs. of soap-stock; which last, with additional ingredients, of small value pecuniarily, will make 20 lbs. of soap. Consequently, 1,800,000,000 lbs. of cotton seed will yield 36,000,000 gallons of oil, 864,000,000 lbs. of oil-cake, 106,000,000 lbs. of soap stock; which, at the lowest estimate, will produce

36,000,000 gallons oil at 75 cents,	$27,000,000
864,000,000 lbs. oil-cake at 1c.,	8,640,000
106,000,000 lbs. soap stock at 3 cts.,	3,180,000
Total estimated value,	$38,820,000

$38,000,000; or suppose that one-third be deducted to satisfy skeptics, the gross amount of $25,000,000 is by far too great a loss to the community not to demand some efforts to reclaim it.

These results of Dr. Coxe, if they can be relied on, are truly astonishing. Of course, every thing depends upon the correctness of his data. That oil can be manufactured from cotton seed in large quantities, there can be no doubt; and that the oil is of great value, we are equally certain. The only question to be tested is whether the cost of manufacture will be sufficiently low to place the oil in fair competition with other oils. We hope that the experiment will be tried, for the purpose of settling the question—a question which involves millions of dollars.

For many important facts regarding the manufacture and value of cotton-seed oil, Dr. Coxe acknowledges himself indebted to Mr. Livingston, a respectable citizen of New Orleans. The oil, says Dr. Coxe, would sell in any quantity in New York at $1 25 per gallon. It is now selling in New Orleans at $1 by the barrel. In reference to the uses of this oil, Dr. Coxe observes:

"In reference to the soap made from cotton oil, it is, in all respects, equal to any, whether imported or of domestic production. It makes a good lather, softens the skin, is good to shave with; and, with time and practical experience, this soap will not, nor does it now, suffer by comparison with the best of Guerlain, Low, or others of note.

As regards the oil, for dietetic or medicinal purposes, few could detect, if unapprised of its source, which I have practically proved, the least difference between it and the far-famed olive oil of Italy. Eaten with salad or rice, it has, to all intents and purposes, the same flavor and taste as are given by the best productions of Plaignol, Avigdor or Sue.

To the politeness of the proprietors of the cotton-oil manufactory in New Orleans, corner of Girod and Circus streets, Messrs. Wilbur & Co., I was indebted for an agreeable hour passed in examining the productions from cotton seed, and certainly, too much praise cannot be awarded to gentlemen who have devoted many years of toil, and gone to heavy expenses, in bringing this important subject to its present state of perfection. Who will not say that they, and particularly Mr. Wilbur, who is the patentee of the great improvements in the machinery required for the purpose, deserve richly the most unbounded success? Can it be doubted, in view of the facts disclosed, that capitalists will be ready and willing to lend their aid in furtherance of such ends, in case their assistance should be called for?

To those who may never have seen these valuable productions, I shall be happy to give them an opportunity of so doing, by calling at No. 95 Camp street, the proprietors having sent me samples for that purpose.

Possibly it is well to observe, that this oil will burn quite as well as the best sperm or lard oil.

The fact that candles can be made from this oil has not been practically proved, but there is a strong foreshadowing that such will shortly be announced.

ART. XI.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

OPELOUSAS AND GREAT WESTERN RAILROAD—MONTGOMERY AND PENSACOLA RAILROAD—RAILROADS IN NORTH CAROLINA—PANAMA RAILROAD—NEW ORLEANS, JACKSON, AND GREAT NORTHERN RAILROAD—EVANSVILLE AND ILLINOIS RAILROAD—MOBILE AND OHIO RAILROAD—RAILWAY WONDERS OF THE WORLD.

In the railroad movements of the country at large, all is animation; "progress" is the order of the day; stagnation is a thing unknown; and among the people "there is no such word as fail."

From the New-Orleans papers we learn that the opening of the *Opelousas and Great Western Railroad* took place on the 3d of December. The eastern terminus is at Algiers, opposite the *Place d'Armes*, in New Orleans. The guests invited to attend the opening, says the *N. O. Crescent*, were about 200, comprising members of the city press, presidents of the different railroads, members of the legislature and of the city council, citizens generally, and distinguished strangers. Among the number we observed the commanding figure of the Mexican General Robles, of ex-Chief-Justice George Eustis, General John L. Lewis, and that Nestor of the bar, Col. John R. Grymes, together with other notable *habitues*, not less distinguished for their talents than for their important public services.

At a few minutes after 11 o'clock, the company left the foot of Canal-street on a ferry boat provided for the occasion, serenaded by a brass band, and arrived at the depot at Algiers. There a few minutes' leisure was offered to examine the extensive buildings of the company, which are laid out on a grand scale. The depot is a spacious building, and is laid off with a view to very large business. It was apparent from the aspect of things around that the prospect of the completion of the road had already had its effects; and this was evident from the numerous new buildings completed, or in process of construction, and from the bustle and activity that pervaded the locality. The locomotive upon the road is one of the finest ever constructed, and capable of a speed of something like sixty miles to the hour. The track is laid with T rail of heavy iron, on cross-ties of cedar, and in point of firmness and durability is second to no other work of the kind in the States. A gauge of 5½ feet is given to the track, thus insuring it against vibration, and imparting greater security, with a capacity for extraordinary speed. Several fine cars were provided for the occasion, and open seats on freight-trucks for those who wished to enjoy the luxuries of the open air and unobstructed vision.

The road is open a distance of 17 miles from New Orleans, passing through the great sugar region of Louisiana. For the benefit of those who have not seen that delightful and almost tropical region, we quote the following from the *Crescent:*

" Along the first two miles of the road, and a half mile back from the river, the land is low and marshy. Beyond Gretna the region of plantations commences, and immense sugar fields spread out to the right and left, with here and there vegetable gardens, the products of which daily supply the city markets. The green and luxuriant appearance of the cane fields, stretching away to magnificent distances, afforded a pleasant relief to the eye of the long pent-up denizen of the town. Spacious and commodious dwelling-houses dot the river shore in front of all the plantations, and these are flanked with the white cottages of the black laborers, and surrounded with orange groves, covered with a profusion of ripe and delicious fruit. To the right of the road, and some ten miles above the city, is the Destrahan plantation, with its magnificent mansion, constructed in the Gothic style, with towers and turrets, resembling those strange structures of feudal times we read of in black-letter volumes, and conjuring up odd fancies of mailed warriors, ladies on white palfreys, troubadours jingling love fancies to sentimental misses, of cross-bows twanging from the castle-keep, and of blood and wounds. From these scenes of culture the thundering train passed rapidly to the region of swamps, where the cypress hangs its solemn drapery of moss; and then again into broad patches of marsh, tenanted by flocks of wild-fowl that sprang from their concealment in terrified haste, and sped away on whistling wings. These passed, sugar estates again intervened, that stretched away to the horizon's edge. In the midst of one of these the train stopped, having arrived at the present terminus of the road."

A magnificent dinner was prepared for the guests at the western terminus, and speeches were delivered—by Mr. Gibbs, the engineer of the road; by General Henderson; Mr. Buchner H. Payne, the superintendent of the road; by Alexander Walker, of the *Delta;* and Mr. E. W. Johnson, of the *Crescent.* Each of the gentlemen was happy in his efforts, and received the flattering applause of the company.

Thus passed off, says the *Crescent*, the opening day of perhaps the greatest enterprise of the age, and thus were made the first revolutions of the iron wheels that are one day to rumble upon the distant shores of the Pacific Ocean. The great Pacific railroad has commenced—its beginning is a reality, and the friends of the enterprise can work on, with a high hope that at no distant day they may be enabled to rejoice over its completion. There is to be no flagging in the good work, and its course is onward!

This is, indeed, the commencement of the great Pacific Railroad via El Paso. It will soon cross the ancient boundary of the United States—the Sabine—and be stretching away over the sunny plains of Texas towards New Mexico.

We learn from the *Louisiana Courier*, that the *Montgomery and Pensacola Railroad* is now entirely surveyed, and that the whole of it will soon be put under contract. In Florida, with the exception of a few curves made in ascending the hill at Pine Barren, the "whole route consists of fine straight lines, and the grade of 24 feet, of which we have already spoken, is the greatest in the whole distance. The whole line in Florida will be 42 miles in length."

The remainder of the route through Alabama, to Montgomery, is found to be very favorable—the heaviest grade, which is near Sparta, being forty feet to the mile, and the whole length only seven miles greater than an air-line.

In North Carolina, the *North Carolina Railroad* is progressing rapidly. It is confidently expected that the road will be completed from Raleigh to Goldsborough, by the 1st of June next.

The *Wilmington and Manchester Railroad* was complete on the 15th of December, except a gap of 9 miles, which was to have been filled up with rails by the 1st of June. We believe that the road is now complete. There is no road in which the traveling public are more interested than in this, since it connects the entire northern system of railroads with that of the South. The completion of this road enables the traveler to go by railroad from Maine to Montgomery, in Alabama.

The *Wilmington and Raleigh Railroad* has been doing a good business during the past year. From the last report, it appears that the total receipts for the year ending October 1, were $568,900, or $46,717 more than last year. The expenses for the year were $406,283, leaving the net profits of the road $162,616. The liabilities of the Company on the 1st of October, were $1,156,261.

We find in the *New Orleans Daily Delta* some interesting details, regarding the *Panama Railroad*—a road largely connected with the commerce of this country. The details are furnished by the Directors of the road:

"The whole length of the road from ocean to ocean, is 49 miles, of which 23¼ miles, from the Atlantic terminus to Barbacoas on the Chagres river, have been in operation since July, 1852. Various improvements have been made in the superstructure since the road-bed was first laid, and others are being completed. The road is laid with iron of a superior quality, weighing 60 pounds to the yard, and will soon be as perfect in character as any in the United States.

The bridge across the Chagres river will be ready for the passage of trains by the 1st of December, when an additional section of 5¼ miles to Gorgona will be opened, and by the 1st of January the cars will pass to the Obispo, 31 miles from Aspinwall. A branch road is under construction from the line of the railroad to the Cruces road, by which means passengers and freight will be transferred directly from the cars to the mules, and the transit will be made from ocean to ocean in 12 hours.

Of the remaining 18 miles of road the grading has been commenced both at the Obispo and Panama termini; and about eight miles have been cleared of timber and prepared for working operations.

In this unfinished section, the summit ridge is crossed, the maximum grade on the Atlantic slope being 61, and on the Pacific slope 70 feet per mile. The heaviest work is at the summit, where a cutting is encountered 1,300 feet in length, and 24 feet in the greatest depth. It is estimated that, with a force of 5,000 laborers, this section can be completed in six months. Arrangements that can be depended on, have been made for the employment of more than this number; and it is therefore expected that the road will be finished to the Pacific by August 1, 1854. The cost of completing the unfinished section of the road to reach the terminus on the Pacific is estimated at $1,426,800.

The financial condition of the company is reported thus:

Amount of stock issued,	$2,621,572
Bonds converted into stock,	92,000
Bonds outstanding,	808,000
Bonds to be issued in conformity with the act of the Legislature, to complete the road	1,478,428
Capital stock as per charter,	$5,000,000

The company was incorporated by act of the Legislature of New York, with a capital of $5,000,000. The stock, like most of the great undertakings of the kind, is somewhat depressed, and selling below par. It will have a powerful competitor in the Tehuantepec road, which is now progressing towards a favorable commencement, with the necessary appliances for completing a passage-way from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific in a short time.

We learn from the late annual report of the *New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Railroad Company*, that the entire line of road from New Orleans to Nashville, a distance of 550 miles, has been carefully surveyed, and a location made of 409 miles, between New Orleans and Chickasaw, on the Tennessee river, intersecting the Memphis and Charleston road in Bear Creek valley, 400 miles from New Orleans; 256½ miles have been placed under contract, viz.: 87½ miles from New Orleans to the State line, 95⅜ miles from the State line to Jackson, 23½ miles from Jackson to Canton, and 50 miles from Aberdeen south. The estimates of the Chief Engineer exhibit $1,027,090 as the sum necessary to complete the road from the city to the State line; and to meet this expenditure, the means and resources of the company available within the period when needed, are deemed sufficient. The resources of the company, over and above the cost of the road to the State line, amounting to about two millions of dollars, will be applicable to the grading and construction of the road from thence to the Tennessee river.

From this report, made by Mr. James Robb, the President of the company, it appears that his failure to effect a loan for the company, in London, in July last, was "owing to the advancing rates of interest, caused by the apprehension of a serious deficiency in the harvests, and the probability of political troubles, calculated to disturb confidence among capitalists."

From the report of the chief engineer, it appears that the cars will be running over the road, from New Orleans to the State line, by the 1st of July next. The balance of the ten thousand tons of iron rails ordered from Liverpool, was to be on the ground by the 1st of January. Three locomotives are already purchased.

The *Evansville and Illinois Railroad* is now complete from Evansville to Vincennes.

From the last report of the *Erie Railroad*, it appears that the cost of the road and equipment to the present date, and the expenditures during the past year, were as follows:—

On what account.	Present cost.	Expenditure of year ending Sept. 30, '53.
Grading, transportation of laborers and materials, and gravel and hand-cars	$12,959,619 97	$2,261,889 43
Superstructure	2,374,186 08	451,219 07
Iron	3,764,216 03	896,860 58
Stations, buildings, and fixtures, viz.:		
Freight and Passenger Depots	513,362 87	57,887 98
Water Stations and Wood Sheds	254,941 21	66,324 91
Machine and Workshops	223,778 97	33,547 84
Machinery in Shops	161,604 78	28,241 58
Depot and Stores in New York	92,974 01	4,029 50
Land, land damages, and fences	1,159,515 16	82,149 49
Locomotives and fixtures	1,362,971 45	12,984 16
	$22,807,170 53	$3,895,134 53

The *Mobile and Ohio Railroad*, to extend from Mobile to the mouth of the Ohio, will have a length of 494 miles; or, including turnouts and branches, 594 miles. The total estimated cost of the road is $12,000,000. The total means provided for its construction are as follows:—

Stock subscription, sufficient to grade and bridge the road	$5,107,576
State-of-Tennessee bonds equal to $8,000 per mile of line in that State	940,000
Proceeds of mortgage bonds	6,000,000
Total	$12,047,576

The security for the bonds now issued will be as follows:

Cost of graduation, &c.	5,101,576
Cost of superstructure and equipment	6,900,000
Lands for depots, stations, &c., including 49 acres at Mobile, in addition to lands donated by Congress	500,000
One million one hundred and fifty-six acres of land, granted by Congress in aid of a Railroad from Mobile to Chicago, on and along the line of the Road, estimated at the low price of $5 per acre	6,000,000
Total value of security	$18,501,576

British Railway Wonders of 1850.—Dickens, in a late number of his "Household Words," thus describes the railway wonders of the United Kingdom for the year 1850. The fancies of Boz will not impair the force or accuracy of the facts and figures, which he has borrowed from official and other reliable sources.

From the unimpeachable record of scarcely credible statistics, it appears that at the end of 1849 there were, in Great Britain and Ireland, 5,596 miles of railway in active operation: upwards of 4,556 are in England, 846 in Scotland, and 494 in Ireland. Besides this, the number of miles which have been authorized by Parliament, and still remain to be finished, is 6,030; so that, if all the lines were completed, the Three Kingdoms would be intersected by a net-work of railroad measuring 12,000 miles; but of this there is only a remote probability, the number of miles in course of active construction being no more than 1,500; so that by the end of the present year it is calculated that the length of finished and operative railway may be about 7,400 miles, or as many as lie between Great Britain and the Cape of Good Hope, with a thousand miles to spare. The number of persons employed on the 30th of June, 1849, in the operative railways, was fifty-four thousand; on the unopened lines, one hundred and four thousand.

When the schemer of the infancy of the giant railway system turns to the passenger account for 1849, he declares he is fairly "knocked over." He finds that the railway passengers are put down at sixty-three million eight hundred thousand; nearly three times the number returned for 1843, and a hundred times as many as took to the road in the days of stage coaches. The passengers of 1849 actually double the sum of the entire population of the Three Kingdoms.

The statement of capital which the 6,000 miles now being hourly traveled over represent, will require the reader to draw a long breath; it is one hundred and ninety-seven and-a-half millions of pounds sterling. Add to this the cash being disbursed for the lines in progress, the total rises to two hundred and twenty millions! The average cost of each mile of railway, including engines, carriages, stations, &c., technically called "plant," is thirty-three thousand pounds.

Has this outlay proved remunerative? The commissioners tell us that the gross receipts from all the railways, in 1849, amounted to eleven millions eight hundred and six thousand pounds; from which if the working expenses be deducted, at the rate of forty-three per cent. (being about an average taken from the published statements of a number of the principal companies), there remains a net available profit of about six million seven hundred and twenty-nine thousand four hundred and twenty pounds, to remunerate the holders of property to the amount of one hundred and ninety-seven millions and a half; or at the rate, within a fraction, of three-and-a-half per cent. Here our parent of railway prospectuses chuckles. *He* promised twenty per cent. per annum.

In short, in everything except the dividends, our scheming friend finds that recent fact has outstripped his early fictions. He told the nervous old ladies and shaky "half-pays" on his projected line, that railways were quite as safe as stage coaches. What say the grave records of 1849? The lives of five passengers were lost during that year, and those by one accident—a cause, of course, beyond the control of the victims; eighteen more casualties took place, for which the sufferers had themselves alone to blame. Five lives lost by official mismanagement, out of sixty-four millions of risks, is no very outrageous proportion; especially when we reflect, that taking as a basis the calculations of 1843, the number of miles traveled over per rail during last year, may be set down at eight hundred and forty-five millions; or nine times the distance between the earth and the sun! Such are the railway wonders of the year 1849.

ART. XII.—EDITORIAL, LITERARY, ETC.

MR. FRENCH, of Washington, who has made a valuable improvement in railroad locomotives, by which they are enabled to ascend grades, with very light friction, has more lately patented an "Improved mode of connecting cars upon railroads." It is thought that it will greatly diminish the loss of life on railroads, and make traveling far more secure; it is very simple in its construction, and can be applied to the ordinary cars at but trifling cost.

The cars are made continuous throughout the train, no space being left between them, so that persons in passing from one to another cannot fall between; and in the event of a collision, one car cannot be forced upon another, as is too often the case, to the great loss of life.

The cars, though brought into contact with each other, yet turn freely on curves, and afford less danger of being thrown from the track.

This invention is one of vital interest to the traveling public, and should be introduced at once, as it affords a perfect immunity from the fatal results of collisions, or heedlessness in passing from one car to the other.

The invention is made by James S. French, to whom communications may be addressed, or to Geo. French, agent, Washington, D. C.

VALUATION OF PROPERTY, TAXATION, &C., IN NEW ORLEANS.

An Abstract of the Assessment of the Parish of Orleans, after objections and corrections have been made, for 1853.

Rep. Districts.	*Real Estate.*	*Negroes.*	*Capital.*	*Licenses.*
First,	5,653,260	680,000	313,135	6,475
Second,	7,251,415	676,150	536,360	9,730
Third,	20,157,175	537,750	6,882,030	76,235
Fourth,	9,150,730	376,800	2,630,800	24,115
Fifth,	6,886,340	551,900	851,100	16,960
Sixth,	4,356,760	549,900	492,600	7,980
Seventh,	2,538,615	255,800	317,800	6,990
Eighth,	1,669,175	117,400	406,900	3,670
Ninth,	1,830,790	234,100	266,050	3,710
Tenth,	6,806,000	362,500	198,700	7,250
Real Estate,	66,350,260	4,342,300	12,895,495	163,115
Negroes,	4,342,300			
Capital,	12,895,495=83,588,055			

State Tax, 16⅔c. per $100,	$139,323 42
Mill Tax for the support of Public Schools,	83,588 05
State Licenses,	163,115 00
Poll Tax for the support of Public Schools,	9,709 00
Total,	$395,725 47

City Taxes, &c.

Jackson Railroad Company, 50c. per $100,	331,751 30
Opelousas " " 33⅓c. "	221,167 53
Consolidated Debt, 105c. per $100,	696,677 73
Current Expenses, 75c. "	530,194 20
Total,	$1,779,790 76

In comparing the above statement with the returns of last year, it will be observed that the increase of taxable property in the parish of Orleans is $6,025,925, viz.: Real Estate, $3,440,785; Slaves, $383,100, and Capital, $2,202,040. This increase is only in nine districts—the Tenth (Lafayette) is unknown.

The Howard Association, of New Orleans, during the late epidemic, treated 11,088 patients, as will be seen by the following statistics, taken from their report. This Association has conferred immortal honor upon the philanthropists of New Orleans, the glorious future of which cannot be checked by pestilential chastenings. Already has the city seemingly recovered from the trials through which she has passed; and long may she enjoy an immunity from them in the future! If we have referred in the past to her sorrows, it has been in the hope of deriving wisdom out of her bitter experiences, such wisdom as will hereafter result in measures of security. We have spoken as a citizen, and one who in evil or in good has nothing to expect but to share her fortunes and her destiny.

The Cases of Yellow Fever treated by the Howard Association.

Natives of		*Natives of*	
Ireland,	5,845	Sweden,	28
England,	198	Norway,	19
Scotland,	56	Denmark,	14
Wales,	7	Belgium,	8
Germany,	2,890	Holland,	5
Switzerland,	35	Poland,	11
Italy and Tyrol,	80	Mexico,	14
Spain,	39	West Indies,	3
Portugal,	2	St. Domingo,	2
France,	436	Canada,	21
Savoy,	6	Nova Scotia and New Brunswick,	9
Corsica,	1	Indian,	1
Greek Isles,	6	United States,	716
Jerusalem,	1	Unknown,	635
	9,602		1,486
	1,486		
Total,	11,088		

Of which 5,203 were males, and
5,885 " females.

9,415 were adults.
1,673 " under 16 years of age.

Of which number 2,942 died, and
8,146 were discharged cured.

We called attention, in our September number, 1853, to a proposition for a call of a Convention of Civil Engineers of the Southern and Western States, at some proper time and place, to consider the general interests of the profession in its bearings upon the Internal Improvement system of the country. The proposition we consider one of great importance, and cordially recommend it to the attention of engineers, from whom we shall be glad to hear upon the subject.

In December last, we attended the Convention of Southern Planters, which was held in Columbia, S. C., and have been expecting ever since to receive a copy of the proceedings from the Secretary, in order to insert them in the Review, and also some of the very able and valuable reports. These will appear before very long in our pages. The Convention adjourned over to meet at Raleigh, N. C.

In the January number of the Review there appeared an article on the Census, written by a gentleman in Washington. This article was prepared during the absence of the editor from this city, and without his knowledge and consent inserted by the partie in charge of the work, into its pages. Though a valuable statistical paper, it contained reference to the editor of the *Review* and to his official connections, which were in very bad taste, and which could never have been allowed to appear, had they passed under his inspection. In a part of the edition theobj ectionable matter was omitted.

SOUTHERN BOOKS.

We call attention to the following card, from J. W. Randolph, of Richmond, Virginia, one of our best southern publishers, and whose stock of Old Virginia works is large and well selected, embracing the works of all of her great Statesmen.

Notes on the State of Virginia, by Thomas Jefferson, illustrated with a map, including the States of Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, and Pennsylvania; a new edition, prepared by the author, containing notes and plates never before published. 8vo., muslin, $2 50.

Elements of Descriptive Geometry, by S. Schooler, M. A., Instructor in Mathematics at Hanover Academy, Va. 4to., muslin, $2 00.

Dr. C. J. B. Williams, and others, on the Principles of the Water Cure, with comments and explanatory remarks, by J. Timberlake, designed chiefly to point out the most beneficial modes of bathing, &c. 18mo. paper, 37c.

Premium Essay on Agricultural Education, by E. Ruffin. 2d edition, 8vo. paper, 12c.

The Virginia Mineral Springs, with remarks on their use, the diseases to which they are applicable, and in which they are contra-indicated, accompanied by a map of routes and distances; a new work. Second edition, improved and enlarged. By W. Burke, M. D., 12mo. muslin, $1 25.

Laws of Virginia on Corporations. 8vo. paper, 50c.

The Plantation Book is by one of the best and most systematic farmers in Virginia, and experienced farmers have expressed the opinion that those who use it will save hundreds of dollars. Price $2 00.

Books sent by mail, free of postage, to those who remit the price to J. W. Randolph, 121 Main-street, Richmond, Va.

Catalogues of rare, old and new books will be sent to all who apply, post paid.

"*Six Months in Italy.*" By George Sullman Hillard, in two volumes, Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields, 1853. This charming little work has been before us for some time; but, from a pressure of other duties, it has not received that attention which it so justly merits.

The land of Italy is ever associated with interesting recollections. Her ancient glory, as shown in the writings of her historians, poets, and philosophers, will shine to all future ages, the monuments of the past, her "seven-hilled city," when she sat a Queen, and when

"Her triumphs purpling her streets,
And princes and sceptered men
Bow'd at her feet,"

All bring to the mind her former grandeur. Nor is her land now less the scene of deep interest to the scholar and the statesman. Mr. Hillard, in his pictorial pages, brings to our "mind's eye" Rome, with its magnificence and glory. St. Peter's tall spires rise before us, the Sunday evening vespers of sacred melody "in pealing anthems swell the note of praise" upon our enchanted ears. Its statuary is presented to our eyes, and the Vatican is open, and we see the Apollo Belvidere in all its matchless symmetry, and the Laocoon in its terrific contortions and sublimity. Not only is Rome depicted with graphic minuteness, but Venice, Milan, Verona, Naples, and other places, are described in a most pleasing style, and their objects of interest presented in a most captivating manner. We most cheerfully recommend the perusal of this work.

The British Poets. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1854. This work will comprise the British Poets, from Spenser to Moore, chiefly reprinted from the celebrated Aldine editions, with Lives of the Authors, and Notes, Historical and Critical, by Rev. John Mitford and others, comprising the following, now in course of publication:—

Akenside	1 vol.	Milton	3 vols.
Beattie	1 "	Parnell	1 "
Burns	3 "	Pope	3 "
Butler	2 "	Prior	2 "
Churchill	3 "	Shakspeare	1 "
Collins	1 "	Surrey and Wyatt	2 "
Cowper	3 "	Swift	3 "
Dryden	5 "	Thomson	2 "
Falconer	1 "	White, H. K	1 "
Goldsmith	1 "	Young	2 "
Gray	1 "		

The *Boston Atlas* says, "They are issued in a style every way equal to, and at a much less price than, the English editions. We have compared a volume of this series with the Aldine copy; and, if there is any choice, our preference is certainly in favor of the American reprint. It is an exact facsimile of the London edition, page by page the same. . . . This undertaking cannot fail to prove a most fortunate and successful one just at the present moment, when the productions of the British poets are, to a great extent, out of print, or only to be possessed in expensive English editions; while the desire for them was, perhaps, never likely to be so great as at present."

Shaffner's American Telegraph Companion, published monthly in the city of New York. Devoted exclusively to the art of Telegraphing, being the cheapest and largest publication ever issued on the science; containing 48 pages octavo. Terms, $2 per annum. Address PUDNEY & RUSSELL, 79 John-street, N. Y.

Bankers' Magazine, January, 1854. The plan of the *Bankers' Magazine* contemplates the publication of all information that is important to capitalists, bank officers, and bank directors. This especially includes the annual exhibits of the finances of each State; finances of cities; Tabular view of railroad bonds, and the funded debts of Railroad Companies; important legal decisions respecting banks, bills of exchange, promissory notes, &c.; Banking Statistics of every State in the Union; Tables of stock movements during each Month; and such details as will be acceptable to moneyed institutions.

The *Bankers' Magazine* is edited and published by T. SMITH HOMANS, 70 Wall street, New York.

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

The *Rhetorical Manual, or Southern Fifth Reader*, published by J. B. Steel, New Orleans.

Parley's Present for all Seasons, by S. G. GOODRICH, author of Peter Parley, &c. D. Appleton & Co., N. Y.; J. B. Steel, N. O.

Littell's Living Age, 1854. A beautiful engraving in each number. The *Living Age* has been abundantly honored by the approbation of the best judges; it has been pronounced to be sound and vigorous; various and entertaining; full of spirit and life; uniting the qualities which gratify the scholar, the philosopher, and the man of business, with those which recommend it to their wives and children. We shall now endeavor to add to these intrinsic excellences the greater attractions of Art, and beginning with 1854, every number will contain an impression from a beautiful *Steel Plate*. The 52 Plates a-year will alone be worth the price of subscription.

This work is made up of the elaborate and stately essays of the Edinburgh, Quarterly, and other Reviews; and Blackwood's noble criticisms on Poetry, his keen political Commentaries, highly wrought Tales, and vivid descriptions of rural and mountain Scenery; and the contributions to Literature, History, and Common Life, by the sagacious Spectator, the sparkling Examiner, the judicious Athenæum, the busy and industrious Literary Gazette, the sensible and comprehensive Britannia, the sober and respectable Christian Observer: these are intermixed with the Military and Naval Reminiscences of the United Service, and with the best articles of the Dublin University, New Monthly, Fraser's, Tait's, Ainsworth's, Hood's, and Sporting Magazines, and of Chambers' admirable Journal. We do not consider it beneath our dignity to borrow wit and wisdom from Punch; and, when we think it good enough, make use of The Times. We shall increase our variety by importations from the continent of Europe, and from the new growth of the British colonies.

The *Living Age* is published every Saturday, by Littell, Son & Co., corner of Tremont and Bromfield streets, Boston. Price 12½ cents a number, or six dollars a year in advance. Remittances for any period will be thankfully received and promptly attended to.

They will send the *Living Age*, postage free, to all subscribers within the United States, who remit in advance, directly to the office of publication, the sum of six dollars, thus placing their distant subscribers on the same footing as those nearer to them, and making the whole country their neighborhood.

First Series of the Living Age.—We offer for sale complete sets in 36 volumes, as follows: Strongly and handsomely bound with red backs, 80 dollars; bound in cloth as heretofore, 72 dollars. The *General Index*, now nearly ready for the press, will be bound to match each style. Littell, Son & Co., Boston.

DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL

OF

Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, Internal Improvements, Statistics, etc., etc.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

VOL. XVI. MARCH, 1854. No. 3.

Art. I.—MOBILE RIVER AND BAY.

REMARKS ON THE REGULATIONS OF RIVERS IN REFERENCE TO THE MOBILE RIVER AND BAY.

EVERY river left to its natural state is subject to alteration, in the direction of its course, as well as the character of its bed, and more particularly when its water flows through a country whose soil is alluvial. When the course of a river is winding, the concave side along which the current exercises the greatest scouring power, and the water runs with the greatest depth and velocity, is constantly giving way, while the material washed from it is carried down and partly deposited on the convex side, where the stream, flowing gently, has not the power to keep in motion the sediment brought from above. Thus, while the process of excavation goes on, on the concave side, an equally steady process of accumulation is carried on on the convex side. Therefore, a river whose channel is winding, when left to itself, has a tendency to become every year more so. The irregularity of the width of the stream causes irregularity in the depth of water, and renders also the bed of the river subject to change. A tree, which the gradual excavation and falling in of the concave bank has at last precipitated into the river, floating down, lodges somewhere below, where the current, being less rapid and the water less deep, causes it to stop. Here the sand and sediment from above, being obstructed in their downward course, soon accumulate and form a shoal or bar. Sometimes a sudden rise in the river may wash this away, only to form another shoal or bar still farther down, with the same materials. Thus, a shoal or bar may be found this year where the water was deep last year, and *vice versa*. Where the channel is narrow, the velocity and the depth are great; where it is wide, the velocity is less, and the depth of water shallow and irregular; where the river passes diagonally across the bed from one concave bank to another, shoals are found in the channel above and below the bend. Where the stream is divided by islands, the effect is equally injurious to the river, for the volume of water, being divided, has not the same scouring power, neither of the branches can have the depth of water which would be due to a single one, the motion of water is retarded in its passage through the branches, and shoals are met with in the bed immediately above and below the island.

As the wealth and prosperity of a country keep pace with the increased cultivation of the soil, and the increased production of the industry of the people, they must be materially affected by whatever tends to stimulate or retard the two latter. Commerce has always been the useful and necessary ally of Agriculture, and the increased facilities of a market have always stimulated the industry of a people. Commerce leads to the formation of depots, where the productions of the soil, and of man's industry generally, gathered together from the interior of a country, may be more conveniently subject to coast or foreign transport. Roads are, therefore, necessary for the conveyance of the production of a country from the remote parts of the interior to these commercial depots. A navigable river affords the easiest and cheapest means of transport, particularly when the staple articles of commerce are of a bulky character. When its course, however, is impeded by shoals or bars, or impaired by abrupt bends, which render its navigation difficult and dangerous, it becomes a question of serious import to the people, whose interests are thereby affected, to inquire whether its course may not be so regulated as to obviate the difficulties arising from abrupt bends and islands, and whether the shoals and bars may not be removed.

The main object sought by the improvement of a river, whose navigation for a part of the year is rendered difficult by the defects mentioned above, is to secure a sufficient depth of water at all seasons and along the whole length of its course, a convenient breadth, together with a freedom from abrupt bends, too rapid currents, and shoals or bars. This can be done permanently, only by removing, or at least modifying materially, where they cannot be altogether removed, the causes which produced those defects, for, as long as those causes continue to operate, the same defects, however often removed, will be sure to return.

The capacity of a river for improvements, however, depends upon the quantity of water and the fall. Where the water is abundant and the fall gradual, the work of improvement is not difficult, and a beneficial result may be looked upon as certain.

When, however, the quantity of water is not abundant, and the fall is considerable and not gradual, the work is far more difficult, and should be carried on with great caution and judgment.

If the course of a river was made straight and of a regular fall from the head of navigation to the mouth, and the channel of a uniform width, the main current would be thrown into the centre, where its scouring power would be exercised to the greatest advantage, which would gradually but inevitably tend to produce a uniform velocity, a uniform bed, and a uniform depth along the whole length, while the water near the banks flowing slowly, and consequently having little or no scouring power, would not wash them. Such a course, however, where the water was not abundant, or where the fall was considerable, might destroy the navigation of a river. For the water would acquire such velocity from the absence of all impediment and from the great fall, as to lower the surface of the river below the depth necessary for navigation. In such a case, a circuitous course, provided the bends were not abrupt, would be better than a straight one, because the winding of the river would distribute the fall over a much greater distance, and by thus reducing the velocity, would prevent the water from running off too fast and lowering its surface below the necessary depth. In some instances, diminishing the breadth of the river may be found serviceable for the purpose of increasing the depth. By the decrease of the breadth of the stream the fall may be maintained unchanged in quantity, though the depth may be increased. It is obvious that for this purpose the breadth must be reduced more than the depth increases. When the contraction of the channel of a river is used for the purpose of deepening it, care should be taken not to create too great a depth, where the bed is composed of soft materials, for the increased velocity, caused by the relative increase of volume, may exercise so great a scouring action as to destroy the very works constructed for the improvement. In such a case, it would be necessary to cover the bottom of the bed of the river with materials capable of resisting the scouring power of the current.

The removal of a sand-bar distributes the fall along a greater extent of the course of a river, and renders the depth more regular; while the lowering of the surface of the water, caused by the removal of the bar, causes a greater velocity in the next upper reach, and this again a greater fall. The regulation of a river, or a part of a river, may be undertaken with perfect certainty in such rivers as have shoals only here and there, with deep water between them, as this is the case in the Alabama River.

From what has been already said, it is clear, that the desired result cannot, in every instance, be secured, as it depends in a great measure on the quantity of water and the fall, so that certain limits cannot be passed.

When it is intended to accelerate the discharge by the regulation, the lowering of the surface of the river depends upon the fall, and if this be slight, the lowering of the surface will be limited. On the other hand, if it is desired to increase the depth at low water, it is clear that this cannot be done by any regulation of the river, unless dams or other similar constructions are made, in order to raise the surface of the water.

The regulation of a river, under ordinary circumstances, costs rather less than the construction of a turnpike of the same length. The excavations necessary for the deepening of the channel and the formation of the banks are not brought into account as earth-work, because the experienced engineer uses rather the natural power of the stream to deepen the bed and regulate the form and height of the banks. But proper precaution should be taken that, in the time of freshets, the main current of the river be kept in the channel, so as to prevent it from being filled up with sand and other materials. It should be considered as a rule, that the river, in time of freshets, must flow in the same channel in which it flows when the water is lowest. But everything depends upon the proper formation of the works, in order that the above-mentioned transformation may take place, and for this purpose a correct knowledge of the efficacy of the water as an operating power, or of the laws which govern the motion of water in rivers, is absolutely necessary. We would here remark that the desired improvement is not produced directly by the constructed works. The object of their construction is to check the irregularity of the current, and to control its direction, so that its own force operating on the bed of the river gradually produces the beneficial effect desired.

When a bar or shoal is produced by sand or sediment deposited by the stream, and is the natural result of an increase in the width of a river, the removal of it by artificial means affords no security against its re-appearance. The cause which led to the deposit of sand or sediment there still continuing to exist, it is certain that the very next freshet will lead to its re-accumulation. Therefore, the removal of sand-bars by the mere use of dredging machines, without, at the same time, preventing their re-formation, by removing the cause that produced them, by a proper regulation of the course of the river, only results in a temporary benefit. After a time the same defect returns, and the work has been done over again.

The published accounts of the improvement of the Clyde have greatly contributed to the belief that the depth of water there had been obtained by dredging operations. Whereas, the fact is, that the dredging vessels were used there only to free the bottom of the bed from some banks composed of such materials not to be removed by the mere power of the current. The chief object, as Mr. Telford fully describes, was to contract the river and increase the velocity of the current by the construction of new banks. This prevented new deposits, and the scouring power of the water had a much larger share in deepening the bed of the river than the dredging machines.

As an example of the inutility of dredging in a river whose bed is composed of soft materials, brought down and deposited by the stream, we give the following brief extract from an article on the subject of dredging in the Thames off Woolwich, contained in the *Nautical Magazine* for July, 1840:—

"THE THAMES.—It is a remarkable fact, that, notwithstanding the enormous sum of £125,000 was expended in dredging the river Thames off Woolwich, between the years 1808 and 1816, the river is now in as bad a state as ever, and the mud and silt is accumulating instead of decreasing; in 1816 alone, as much as £29,000 was spent, and the sum amounts on an average to £16,000 per annum, to such little purpose."

In stagnant waters, where there exists no cause for the formation of shallows, or sand-banks, or where the depth decreases very slowly, dredging operations may produce a permanent as well as a beneficial result. But in rivers where the scouring action has formed at some place a small and at others a great depth, the proper form of the bed and direction of the course must be established by the use of the power of the stream, and this is done by removing the causes which prevent the formation of a channel of a sufficient depth. The problem to be solved is, how to convey the streams in such a manner that it may produce the most suitable form of its bed, and at the same time the desired depth. We may expect that the favorable result produced will be permanent only when this is accomplished.

The positions here laid down, with respect to the improvement of rivers and navigable waters, and the principles involved in them, are especially worthy of consideration, in reference to the present condition and prospective improvement of the entrance to our river and that part of the bay adjacent to it. In the navigable waters of the Mobile River, or rather Mobile Bay, there are several shoals below the city, which are highly detrimental to its commerce, by preventing large vessels from coming up and discharging at the wharves, and thereby affecting its intercourse with other large seaports. This defect in our bay has, for a long time, given rise to continual complaints on account of the want of a sufficient navigable depth, and wishes expressed to have these obstructions removed.

The great extent of the operations that will be necessary, if any permanent and effective improvement is sought to be established, will render the undertaking a very expensive one. The natural consequence of which will be, to induce the adoption of palliative means which will never produce a permanent beneficial result.

The U. S. Engineer Department recommended the deepening of the bed by the use of dredging vessels. Of course, the result that might have been expected followed—the amounts appropriated for the purpose of improvement were soon expended, without producing a greater navigable depth.

As long as the Mobile River is allowed to find its way to the bay through several channels, neither of which can have the depth of water which would be due to a single one, the power to create for itself a channel of sufficient depth, which the concentrated waters of the river certainly would possess, is distributed between them, and thus partially lost. Besides, these several channels discharging their waters into the bay by different mouths and at different angles, interfere with each other, producing eddies and shallows, which prevent uniformity in the depth of the bay; whereas a stream coming from a single and regular channel, would pursue a straight course towards the outfall, with a much more regular motion, and thus create and maintain a more regular channel, and a greater navigable depth throughout the bay.

The depth of water in the outfall through which the river discharges itself through the bay into the Gulf of Mexico depends on the force of the outward motion of the water, so as that of the bay and bed of the river depends entirely and exclusively upon the upland waters.

Whenever the Mobile River shall receive a permanent increase of water by the shutting up of the branches or subsidiary streams, its depths and velocity will be augmented. The velocity being increased by the increase in volume of water, the scouring power of the current will act upon the sides and bottom of the channel with increased force, in consequence of which the cross-sectional area of the stream will also be augmented. The channel being thus deepened and enlarged, the velocity will in turn gradually diminish, until the tenacity of the soil affords a sufficient resistance to the force of the water.

In this way, the entire volume of water in the river being concentrated in one channel, its scouring power may be used to relieve the channel from its present defects, remove the shoals that obstruct its entrance from the bay, and enable vessels of much larger burden to discharge their cargoes at the wharves. The great advantage of this improvement would be its permanent character, for the volume of water once increased sufficiently to deepen the channel and clear out the shoals, would continue to preserve a safe navigable depth.

MOBILE, *January 6th*, 1854.

Art. II.—THE REGIONS OF THE AMAZON.

THE attention of the world has been particularly directed, during the past year, to the great valley of the Amazon, in South America; and more especially by the able papers on the subject, by Lieut. Maury, published in the *National Intelligencer*, in our REVIEW, and recently republished in a handsome volume.

It will be recollected, that on the 15th of February, 1851, instructions were transmitted from the Navy Department to Lieutenants Herndon and Gibbon, then at Valparaiso, attached to the U. S. ship Vandalia, of the Pacific Squadron, to explore the valley of the Amazon and its tributaries. Lieut. Herndon first proceeded to Lima and Bolivia, for the purpose of collecting from the monasteries, and other sources accessible, information concerning the head-waters of the Amazon and the regions of country drained by its Peruvian tributaries. He found, however, the sources of information there very small and unsatisfactory. The records of the explorations of the Jesuits were out of their reach—in the archives of Quito, at that time the head of the diocese, and the starting point of the missions into the interior. All they could get were some meagre accounts of the operations of the Franciscans, published in 1790. At Lima he was joined by Lieut. Lardner Gibbon, who brought with him full instructions regarding the expedition. These required them to "explore the Amazon from its source to its mouth," together with its tributaries; to note the number and condition, both industrial and social, of the inhabitants of the valley—their trade and products; its climate, soil, and productions; the navigability of its streams; its capacity for cultivation, and the character and extent of its undeveloped commercial resources, whether of the field, the forest, the river, or the mine; also to ascertain the present condition of the silver mines of Peru and Bolivia, and what are the inducements offered by the laws of those countries for emigrants to settle in the eastern provinces of those republics. They were particularly directed to note the agricultural condition of the valley of the Amazon, and to bring home specimens of its products.

Lieut. Herndon, the commander of the expedition, being left by his instructions free to choose his own route down the Amazon, resolved at last, after much consideration, to divide his party. He accordingly ordered Lieut. Gibbon to proceed to explore the country east of Cuzco, and to search for a large and navigable river, said to have its sources in the Caraboya Mountains, called the Madre de Dios, thought by some to be the Purus. If the route by that river was found impracticable, he was ordered to proceed to Puno, on Lake Titicaca, thence to La Paz, in Bolivia, and finally to descend the rivers Mamore and Madeira to the Amazon. On arriving at the Amazon, he was to ascend the river to the Barro do Rio Negro, and there await the arrival of Lieut. Herndon, who was to proceed down the Huallaga River to the Amazon, and thence to the Barro do Rio Negro.

The parties left Lima for Tarma, a place a little to the northeast of Lima, on the 20th of May, 1851, provided with passports by the President of Peru, General Castilla. As the report of Lieut. Gibbon is not yet published, we shall pursue the route taken by Lieut. Herndon, whose report is now before us.

On the 27th of May the party arrived at San Mateo, which, though but a short distance from Lima, was found to have an elevation of 10,200 feet above the sea. From this place they visited the silver mines of Parac, in a perfectly sterile region, where nothing but mountains of granite, towering to the skies, appeared. These mines, though rudely worked, yield about $75,000 annually. On the 2d of June they arrived at the lowest line of perpetual snows. The barometer stood at 16.730, indicating an elevation of 16,044 feet. Water boiled at 182° 5′; temperature of the air, 43°. The road at this point, only sixty miles from the sea, passed near three little lakes, whose waters flowed into the Amazon. This was, therefore, the dividing ridge. One of the party was sick with the *veta*, a disease characterized by violent headache, swelling and turgidity of the veins of the head, difficulty of respiration, and coldness of the extremities. It is caused by the rarity of the atmosphere at those high elevations—by an absence of sufficient atmospheric pressure. The smell of garlic is said to alleviate the symptoms; and accordingly, the Peruvians anoint the heads of their mules with an unguent of tallow, garlic, and marjoram, before making the ascent.

Pursuing their weary journey through the mountains, they found themselves very gradually descending, and on the 6th of June arrived at Tarma, a place of 7,000 inhabitants, in the province of Pasco. On their way they visited the copper mines of Morococha, worked by a German company, and found to be very productive. They also had a view, as they passed along, of the Puy-puy, a peak of the Andes, said to be higher than Chimborazo. In this lofty region they found immense numbers of ducks and other aquatic birds, on the small lakes.

Tarma is situated in a beautiful valley, embosomed among trees and flowers, with green lawns stretching out before it, and abounding with tropical fruits and grains. It is said to be so healthy that it does not support a physician, though there are 20,000 inhabitants in the district. Lieut. Herndon found a young American physician there, who told him an appropriation had to be made by the government to support him. He tried to induce the physician to join his party and leave the place; but the ladies, on hearing that he proposed to carry him off, raised a great outcry, and declared that they could not part with their *Medico.* There was no apothecary's shop in the town, and Lieut. Herndon left the doctor a small supply of medicines. The climate of Tarma is delicious, and it is the resort of the sickly of Lima. Just before reaching Tarma, the exploring party crossed, on a suspension bridge, the river Sauxa, a tributary of the Ucayali, one of the upper southern branches of the Amazon. The latitude of Tarma was found to be, by the mean meridian altitudes of α and β Centauri, 11° 25′ 05″ South.

On the 16th of June the party left Tarma for the Chanchamayo, a branch of the Ucayali. After travelling a few miles they arrived at the city of Acobamba, said to be more populous than Tarma; and six miles farther brought them to Palca, a town of 1,000 inhabitants. Proceeding down the valley of the Chanchamayo, they arived on the 19th June at Fort San Ramon, in lat. 11° 07′ S., at the foot of the eastern slope of the Andes, 2,600 feet above the level of the sea. The descent in the last four miles was 1,535 feet. The ascent of the Andes, on its western slope, was found to be 232 feet to the mile; and on the eastern, 152 feet. The highest point attained was 16,199 feet.

San Ramon is a military post at the junction of the Chanchamayo and Tulumayo rivers, for the protection of the country against the Indians, who attempt to dispute the passage of the rivers, and to annoy the inhabitants by setting fire to the woods.

The productions of the country in that region are maize, sugar-cane, coca, yucca, pineapples, plantains, coffee, and cotton. Laborers are hired at half a dollar a day. Sugar-cane is propagated there, from the top joints of the old plant, and is planted at the commencement of the rainy season in September. It is ready for cutting in a year, and yields every ten months, improving in quality and size every crop for a number of years, according to the quality of the land and the care bestowed upon it. It will continue to spring up from the roots for 50 or 60 years, with one or two light workings with hoes in a year. The field is set fire to after every cutting, to burn up the rubbage, weeds, &c. The average height of the cane is about ten feet, though Lieut. Herndon saw stalks of sixteen feet. Sugar at Tarma is worth 12½ cents per pound. Still very little sugar is made in that region, there being no market.

The *coca* is a bush, about four feet high, producing a small light green leaf, which is the part used. The blossom is white, and the fruit a small red berry. The seed is sown in beds, about the 1st of March. It is transplanted in September, a year and a half after planting, and gives its first crop in a year, and every four months thereafter. It continues to give leaves for many years. Every 100 plants give an arroba of leaves, worth from $6 to $7. The leaf of this plant is to the Peruvian Indian what tobacco is in North America.

The *coffee* of that region is very fine—superior to that of Guayaquil and Central America. In Lima, it generally brings $25 and $27 per cwt.

Cotton, there, may be planted at any time in the year. It is there a tree of some 8 or 10 feet high, giving its crop in one year, and continuing to yield for three years, after which the tree dries up, and must be replanted. It bears cotton all the time; but it is not good during the rainy season. It is the black seed, and when picked off, leaves the seed perfectly bare and clean. There is also the nankeen-colored cotton, the tree appearing exactly like that of the white.

Yucca, (Cassava-root,) which is grown from the stalk of the plant, is planted at any time, and yields in nine months. The plant runs up 15 or 20 feet high, with about the thickness of a man's wrist. The yucca is the general substitute for bread, when roasted or boiled, and is very pleasant to the taste. Each plant gives from 20 to 25 pounds of the edible root, which grows in clusters, like the potato, and some of which are as long and thick as a man's arm.

Three crops of *Indian corn* are raised in a year, and it is of good quality.

The most common fruit of the country is the banana; it grows without labor, and supplies constantly with food those too lazy to work. The other fruits, too numerous to mention, thrive luxuriantly.

The country does not seem good for grazing—all the calves are born dead, or soon die after birth, with a goitre, or swelling in the neck. The country, on the head-waters of the Ucayali, is one of the finest in the world, and when the navigation of the Amazon is opened, it will gradually fill with settlers.

On returning to Tarma, the question of dividing the party was discussed, and it was resolved that Lieut. Gibbon should explore the Bolivian tributaries of the Amazon, while Lieut. Herndon took the head-waters and main trunk of the river. They parted on the 1st of July, Lieut. Gibbon for Cuzco, south, and Lieut. Herndon for the head-waters of the Rio Huallaga, north. We shall pursue the latter in his route, for the reason before stated.

His journey at first lay over an elevated mountain region—a plain about 45 miles long by from 6 to 12 broad—the soil gravelly, and too cold and sterile to produce even potatoes.

During the four first days he passed Acobomba, of from 1,000 to 2,000 inhabitants, and Polcomayo, and Junin of the same size. The inhabitants of this region are chiefly herdsmen, living in houses of mud and straw. There being no timber, turf is used for fuel. The plain of Junin is historical, it being where Bolivar, on the 6th of August, 1824, completely defeated the Spaniards. Lieut. Herndon visited the pyramid, erected by Mariano Rivero, then prefect of the province, to commemorate the battle. It is built at the foot of a small hill, where the Liberator stood directing the fight. It is white, and appears to be 70 or 80 feet high. The city of Junin stands at the southern extremity of Lake Chinchaycocha, 12,947 feet above the level of the sea. No other battle was probably ever fought at such an elevation. The lake is 20 miles long by 6 broad, and discharges its waters into the Amazon by the river Jauxa, a branch of the Ucayali.

A few miles north of Junin is the silver region, the mouths of mines, some worked and some abandoned, appearing in every direction. The city of Cerro Pasco, which the party entered on the 5th of July, is the centre of the mining region. It is a strange place, with narrow streets, "entirely honeycombed having the mouths of mines, some two or three yards in diameter, gaping everywhere." The earth is so full of excavations that the falling in of the mines is of frequent occurrence. A few years ago 300 persons were buried in one of them, and four days before the arrival of Lieut. Herndon, five persons were buried alive. The silver mines of Cerro Pasco were discovered in 1630, and although they have been worked ever since, they now yield about $2,000,000 annually, or more than all the rest of Peru. M. Castelnau estimates that these mines, up to the year 1849, have yielded about $475,000,000, or $2,170,000 annually.

About 200 miles S. E. of Cerro Pasco are the celebrated quicksilver mines of Huancavelica. They were opened in 1751, and up to the year 1789 yielded 1,040,452 quintals; which, at the mean price of $65 per quintal, would amount to $67,629,380. In the same period there were expended on them $10,587,845. Since 1789 they have yielded nothing of importance. They could probably still be worked to advantage. Bolivar refused to sell them for $670,000.

The city of Cerro Pasco is 13,802 feet above the sea, and has a population of from 6,000 to 15,000, all engaged in mining. The usual immorality of mining regions prevails. There are no ladies there, says Lieut. Herndon, and no religion, even in form. Everything is swallowed up in the love of gain. The climate is uncomfortably cold, the elevation being so great. In July, August, and September, the mean temperature is 44° in the day, and 35° at night. From the middle of October to the end of April the climate, says Lieut. Herndon, is insupportable from the rains, tempests and lightnings, which almost every year cause damage.

Almost immediately after leaving Cerro Pasco, Lieut. Herndon came upon the head-waters of the Huallaga. Seven miles N. N. E. of Cerro Pasco, he found the village of Quinna, where a mint, now abandoned, was established some years ago. In the same neighborhood there are gold mines. On the 14th of July the party arrived at San Rafael, a place of 250 souls, and 8,551 feet above the sea. Vegetation here was more abundant, and flowers in profusion; but the snow-capped peaks of the Andes were still on all sides. About 10 miles from San Rafael they began a rapid descent, and in fifteen minutes found themselves in a region of fruit-trees and sugar-canes, on the banks of the Huallaga. The sudden transition from rugged mountain peaks, where there was no cultivation, to a tropical vegetation, was marvellous.

A few hours after leaving San Rafael, they arrived at Ambo, a town of 1,000 souls, situated at the junction of the Huacar and Huallaga. They were now in a delightful region. The valley was everywhere beautiful. Two miles from Ambo, on the opposite bank, appeared another pretty village almost hidden in the luxuriant vegetation about it. Fields of sugar-cane and alfolfa appeared on all sides.

On the 16th of July Lieut. Herndon arrived at Huanuco, one of the most ancient cities in Peru. The Huallaga is here about 40 yards wide, and 2 deep in low water. The population is from 4,000 to 5,000. The houses are of adobe. There are 15 churches, the inhabitants being much attached to religion. Some of the churches are large and handsome. Huanuco is 5,946 feet above the level of the sea, and is very healthy. It has a college of 100 students, well endowed, and well supplied with chemical and philosophical apparatus, purchased in Europe, by the exertions of Don Mariano Eduardo de Rivero, formerly prefect of the department, and now Consul-General to the Netherlands, where he is said to be preparing a voluminous work on the antiquities of Peru. He has, besides, founded schools, improved roads, built cemeteries, and made most of the improvements in Peru. The people of Huanuco are extremely anxious to have the navigation of the Huallaga opened to that place. Gold is found in the mountains near Huanuco.

Following down the Huallaga, through a delightful tropical region, they arrived on the 23d of July at Acomayo, after passing two or three smaller places. It has 300 inhabitants, and is 7,518 feet above the sea. The road thus far down the valley had been rugged, and on the 25th of July, a little below Chinchao, the mule road ceased. Here they were to await the Indians from Tingo Maria, a village at the head of canoe navigation on the Huallaga, to take the place of the mules in carrying the baggage. The *coca* is much raised in this region, and Lieut. Herndon mentions a hacienda, or plantation, that produced a crop worth $21,800 annually. It sells at Huanuco at $3 per arroba. Coca is the only marketable product of the valley of the Huallaga, although cotton, coffee, sugar, &c., grow luxuriantly. The valley does not abound in wild animals, but there are deer, hares, tiger-cats, and animals of the mink kind, that annoy poultry. The birds are generally of gay plumage, but not very numerous. Insects are very abundant and troublesome. The climate is very pleasant and healthy. Bats are very annoying there, to animals, by sucking their blood.

On the 30th of June, thirteen Indians arrived to conduct Lieut. Herndon, and carry his baggage. They found the river rapid, and full of trees and boulders, which rendered even canoe navigation dangerous. On the 1st of August they arrived at Tingo Maria, a small hamlet on the right bank of the river. This place is 335 miles from Lima by the route travelled, and is at the head of canoe navigation. It is a nineteen days' journey from Lima, by the shortest route. A mule that will carry 260 lbs. can be hired at Lima for $1 per day, including feed. Travellers are obliged to hire new mules every 100 miles.

Tingo Maria is pleasantly situated on the left bank of the river, in a fertile plain six miles wide by three broad, 2,260 feet above the sea. The productions of this plain are sugar-çane, rice, cotton, tobacco, indigo, maize, sweet potatoes, yuccas, and the sachassapa, or potato of the woods, the large, mealy purple-streaked root of a vine, in taste like a yam, and very good food. The game are American tigers, deer, wild hogs, monkeys, &c. Curassows, turkeys, many varieties of parrots, ducks, cormorants, and other birds are numerous; also rattle-snakes and vipers. The woods are so thick and tangled with undergrowth, that none but an Indian can penetrate them; and even the Indian rarely ventures into them, for fear of the tiger and vipers. Bats are found in that region of enormous size. One of the servants of Lieut. Herndon shot one that measured about two feet across the extended wings. They are of the vampire species, and are a formidable enemy to animals and travellers, who have to sleep with head and body entirely enveloped in a blanket, in order to prevent their blood from being sucked by them at night.

At Tingo Maria, Lieut. Herndon and his party embarked in two large canoes, each about 40 feet long by 2½ broad, dug out of a single tree. They found the average breadth of the river about 90 yards, and the velocity about 3½ miles an hour, except at rapids, which were numerous. The banks were low, and covered with cane, trees and bushes. There are hills on each side at some distance from the shore. Tigers were heard at night, and gangs of large red monkeys were seen along the shores, of the species called howling monkeys. They are roasted and eaten by the Indians. A species of river-hog, an amphibious animal, about half the size of a full-grown hog, is common in the Huallaga. It is of a red color, which was the color of all the animals that Lieut. Herndon saw in that region. Lieut. Herndon frequently supped on *monkey soup*—a common dish among the Indians. Monkey flesh, however, he found rather tough.

On the 7th of August, the party arrived at the port of Uchiza. Nearly all the towns on the river are from six to nine miles from its bank, in consequence of the overflow in high-water; and the port is a small place on a high bluff, with a road leading from it to the town. On the same day, they passed the mouths of two small tributaries of *salt* water. They flow from a hill of salt, about a day's journey from the Huallaga, from which the inhabitants supply themselves.

The voyage down the river was at the rate of about fifty miles a day. On the eleventh day, below Tingo Maria, the head of canoe navigation, they found the river, at a place called Sion, one hundred yards broad, eighteen feet deep, and with a current of four miles an hour. They had, however, passed several dangerous rapids, called *malos pasos*. The river, thus far down, was found to have a rise, in high-water, of about forty feet, overflowing the country for many miles inland. On the 13th of August, the party passed the *Pan de Azucar*, a sugar-loaf island of slate rock, towering above the river, which, below it, they found running between high cliffs of white rock—an argillaceous schist.

They found rapids very frequent, down which they let themselves by ropes. These are more dangerous in high water than in low.

In descending the Huallaga, scarcely a day passed without arriving at some village; and the farther they descended the more beautiful and fertile the valley became. Nothing but good government and an industrious people are necessary to make that region one of the richest and most delightful in the world. But the people are excessively ignorant and indolent—a consequence of bad government—and there is no inducement for them to aspire to anything beyond a rude existence. They would be robbed of their wealth if they were to accumulate it by rapacious governors. As for personal liberty, they have none. Lieutenant Herndon relates, that the people of Eastern Peru, wherever he went, were subject, at all times, to any service that a governor might require of them. He could call them from their homes at any time, and send them on an expedition. They feared to have it known that they had money, lest a governor might demand it of them. "I do not wonder at the indifference of the people," says Lieutenant Herndon, "to attempt to better their condition. The power of the governor to take them from their labor, and send them on journeys of weeks' duration with any passing merchan tor traveller, would have this effect." Of course, the natives are extremely mild and submissive, or they would not subject themselves to such despotism. On the 14th of August, Lieutenant Herndon arrived at Chualluayacu, a settlement of twenty houses. All the inhabitants, except those of one house, were absent. He was told that they had been disobedient in some matter to the governor of the district, and that he had come upon them with a force, and carried them off prisoners to Juan Juy, a large town farther down the river, where authority might be brought to bear upon them.

Such is Peruvian civilization, if, indeed, civilization it may be called. It is certainly no better than that of Turkey or Egypt. The way to improve Peru is first to reform and civilize its government. Living in the most fertile and healthy region, its people are kept down and disheartened by a miserable government.

The river at Chualluayacu was one hundred yards wide, shallow and rapid, with hills on the right, and a vast plain covered with trees, canes, and bushes on the left. On the east side of the Huallaga there are but few settlements, owing to the savages who inhabit that side. These savages are those who have not as yet been converted to Christianity. They are called by the Peruvians *infidels*, and are captured and enslaved by them. Slavery is prohibited by the laws of Peru; but those laws are a dead letter so far as regards these unconverted Indians, who are allowed to be enslaved, on the plea that the infidel is Christianized, and his condition bettered by it.

On the 18th of August, the party passed the mouth of the Hunanza. The salt hills of this region are remarkable. They are about three hundred feet in height, and extend along the banks of the river for a quarter of a mile. The salt shows like frost upon their red earth at a distance; but seen nearer, the heavy rains seem to have washed away the loose earth, and left the nearly pure salt standing in innumerable cone-shaped pinnacles; so that the broken sides of the hills look like what drawings represent of the crater of a volcano. Where the hills have been excavated, beautiful stalactites of perfectly pure salt hang from the roof in many varieties of shapes. There are much higher hills back of these that appear also to contain salt, so that there seems to be an inexhaustible supply.

On the 19th of August, Lieutenant Herndon arrived at Tarapoto, the largest town since he left Huanuco. It has 3,600 inhabitants, and stands in a populous district. It is a place of some trade, and goods brought from Lima thither sell at an advance of about four hundred per cent. on the cost at Lima. The people of Tarapoto are chiefly employed in the manufacture of cotton cloth, of which they make some thirty or forty thousand yards annually, at twelve and a half cents a yard. This and white wax, used so extensively in the churches, are the chief staples of the country. Money being almost unknown there, the entire trade is barter. The country is extremely productive. Cotton yields a crop every six months; rice every five months; indigo is indigenous; bananas grow in vast abundance, with little trouble; and cattle of all kinds multiply rapidly. All the country needs to make it a perfect garden of wealth is a Yankee population.

The country is without roads—an unerring evidence of the barbarism and uncivilized character of the country. All cargoes are transported on the backs of Indians. The inhabitants have no idea of comfort in their domestic relations. The houses are of mud, thatched with palm, and have uneven dirt floors. The furniture consists of a grass hammock, a standing bed-place, a coarse table, and a stool or two. The governor of this populous district goes barefooted, and the common people are two-thirds naked. Clothing, indeed, is a matter of decency there rather than of necessity. Lieutenant Herndon paid his peons for their services in cloth, money being a thing unknown to them.

At Tarapoto, Lieutenant Herndon inquired into the feasibility of a steamboat enterprise from the Atlantic up to that region—bringing American goods, and taking in return cargoes of coffee, tobacco, straw hats, hammocks, and sarsaparilla, to the ports of Brazil, on the Amazon. He was informed by intelligent Spanards there, that it could not fail to enrich any one who would attempt it, but that the difficulty lay in the fact that a steamer could never get up as high as the Huallaga, as all the goods it could carry would be bought up and paid for, in return cargoes, long before it reached Peru. The money, too, of the Brazilians along the Amazon would readily snatch up all the goods that would be brought. As a curious instance of Yankee enterprise and adventure, Lieutenant Herndon states, that a few months before he arrived in that region, an American *circus company* passed down the valley of the Huallaga, astonishing the natives, of course, as they went along. They floated their horses down the river on rafts, and when last heard of were descending the great Amazon. Lieutenant Herndon thinks that they could not have been very successful, judging from the number of dead ponies, killed by the vampire bats, that he found along the

Huallaga. They probably fared better when they reached Brazil.

Lieut. Herndon strongly recommends the valley of the Huallaga to emigrants, on account of its great fertility and healthiness of climate. He says it combines more advantages than any other in Peru. The valley of the Ucayali is richer, and produces cotton and coffee; but it is entirely an unsettled wilderness, except by Indians, and the emigrant would have to fight the savages constantly. In the valley of the Huallaga the governors are authorized to give lands to all emigrants who will receive them. The country produces four crops of corn a year.

On the 28th of August the party arrived at Yurimaguas, a small place of 250 inhabitants, but important on account of its geographical position. It is at the mouth of the river Cachiyacu, which is the route of communication between the ports of the Amazon and the country between the Huallaga and Marañon, in Peru. Yurimaguas, therefore, would be the key to Eastern Peru, for all expeditions coming up the Amazon from the Atlantic to trade with the Peruvians.

On leaving Yurimaguas, the traveller begins to enter the lake country, as he approaches the Amazon. Lakes of various sizes, and at irregular distances, border the rivers, and communicate with them. They are full of fowl, fish, and turtle.

Passing two more small towns, Santa Cruz and Laguna, Lieut. Herndon arrived at the junction of the Huallaga with the Amazon, 25 miles below Laguna, on the 3d of September, 1851. The Huallaga, at its mouth, is 350 yards wide, and 45 deep. The Amazon, at this point, is 500 yards wide. The water of both rivers is very muddy and filthy, particularly the Huallaga, which for some distance within the mouth is covered with a glutinous scum, the excrements of fishes, probably of the porpoise. From the mouth of the Huallaga to Tingo Maria, the head of canoe navigation, it is 325 miles—a journey of 74 working hours.

Lieut. Herndon now entered upon the main trunk of the Amazon, which bears its Peruvian name of Marañon as far as the Tobatinga, at the Brazilian frontier, below which, and as far as the junction of the Rio Negro, it takes the name of Solimoens, and thence to the ocean is called Amazon. "The march of the great river," says Lieut. Herndon, "is sublime; but in the untamed might of its turbid waters, as they cut away its banks, tear down the gigantic denizens of the forest, and build up islands, it is awful. It rolls through the wilderness with a stately and solemn air; its waters look sullen and relentless; and the whole scene awakens emotions of dread and awe—such as are caused by the funeral solemnities, the minute-gun, the howl of the wind, and the angry tossing of the waves, when all hands are called to bury the dead in a troubled sea."

The waters of the Amazon are muddy and turbid like those of the Mississippi; but the river, of course, lacks the charm which the rich plantations and pretty towns and villages along the Mississippi afford. Lieut. Herndon found the shores low, but abrupt, and the waters filled with porpoises and alligators. At Parinari the banks were about twenty feet high. Monkeys were seen in every direction along the shores. They are the common food of the Indians. He passed small *pueblos*, or settlements, almost daily. On the 9th of September he arrived at the mouths of the Ucayali, 210 miles below the Huallaga. Nauta, a village at its mouth, contains 1,000 inhabitants. The trade of the place is in fish and sarsaparilla, which is very abundant. The whole trade of the province in which Nauta is situated does not exceed $20,000 annually. The gathering of sarsaparilla, and the carrying on of trade in general, is much impeded by the ferocity of the savages.

The entire trade of the river Amazon, as measured by the imports and exports of Para, amounted, in 1851, to only $2,000,000; but the introduction of steamboats would increase the trade rapidly, and as rapidly enrich all engaged in it; but on this subject we have already treated largely in previous numbers of the REVIEW. We have also given the valuable papers of Lieut. Maury on the subject. All that is now needed is a treaty with Brazil, permitting our citizens freely to navigate the Amazon, a thing which nothing but the jealousy and short-sighted policy of Brazil prevents. She stands in her own light, and cannot see that the opening of the Amazon would enrich herself as well as others. We admire the enthusiasm of Lieut. Herndon. "Had I the honor," says he, "to be mustered among the statesmen of my country, I would risk political fame and life in the attempt to have the commerce of this noble river thrown open to the world."

The Amazon, at the mouth of the Ucayali, is three-fourths of a mile wide. The country there is covered with excellent timber of various kinds, suitable for house or ship building, and for all other purposes. Some of them are very hard, heavy, and beautiful. The *palo de saugre* is a tree whose wood is a rich red, admitting of a high polish. The lignum vitæ is common.

On the 25th of September, 1851, Lieut. H. began to explore the Ucayali. It is a beautiful stream, with low shelving green banks at its mouth, but is not more than half as wide as the Amazon where it empties into it. It is the longest tributary above Brazil, and is called by some the main trunk of the Amazon. The banks are constantly caving in, and the current near the mouth is about 1¾ miles per hour. Islands are numerous, and the country open. There are many lakes on each side of the river opening into it. Turtles and fish are very abundant in its waters.

After a tedious voyage of 23 days on the river, Lieut. H. arrived at Sarayacu, a Franciscan Missionary Station, of 1,000 inhabitants. He had passed only a few small places of no importance. Here his exploration of the Ucayali ended, it being impossible to procure men to accompany him farther. The navigation above Sarayacu is said to be poor.

Both the Huallaga and Ucayali rivers are full of snags, which render the navigation dangerous. The Ucayali averages half a mile wide, 20 feet deep, at low water, and has a velocity of 3 miles per hour—up as far as Sarayacu, 270 miles; in a straight line, 150. The Indians along that river are of a roving disposition, and towns that existed in 1835 cannot now be found. The difference between high and low water mark, on the Ucayali, is about 35 feet. The bottom of the river is full of sunken trees. At the mouth it is 72 feet deep, and with a current of three-quarters of a mile per hour, which is also about the velocity of the Amazon at that place.

On the 7th of November, Lieut. H. arrived at Iquitos, not far below the mouth of the Ucayali. It is on an elevated plain, which is said to extend far back from the shores of the river. Most of the towns on the Amazon are built on a hill, with a low, swampy country behind them. Cotton and coffee trees are seen growing in the streets. The shores of the Amazon, at Iquitos, are bold, and of white clay. Just below the town is the mouth of the Nanay, 150 yards wide. The depth of the Amazon there is 50 feet. In this part of the river it is sometimes two miles wide, and then narrowing to half a mile.

Just before arriving at New-Oran, or Pucallpa, on the 8th of November, Lieut. H. found no bottom at 180 feet. On the same day he arrived at the mouth of the Napa, a northern tributary, which has its head near Quito, and nearly to which it is navigable for canoes. On the 2d of December, he arrived at Loreto, where the river is 102 feet deep, and three-quarters of a mile wide, with a current of three miles an hour. Loreto is the first town he arrived at on the river bearing the marks of civilization. It has three mercantile houses, owned by Portuguese. The houses of the town are better built than any above that point. This place is the frontier post of Peru on the east. There are a few miles of neutral territory between it and Brazil. The population is 250. Loreto is in latitude 4° south, and longitude 70° 30′ west. Twenty miles below Loreto, the party arrived at the first town in Brazil, Tobatinga, a military post Here Lieut. H. found it necessary to sail under the Brazilian flag, to avoid giving offence along the river. He also found it necessary to leave his Peruvian boat and embark in a Brazilian vessel. This they compel all travellers to do.

On the 8th of December, Lieut. H. arrived at San Paulo, a town of 350 souls, situated on a hill 2 or 300 feet above the river, and difficult to approach. It carries on a considerable trade in sarsaparilla and cocoa. It is 95 miles below Tobatinga, in about latitude 2¾° south. The next day, 50 miles farther down, they arrived at Matura. The shores of the river continue to be low, and of white or red clay. The banks are continually falling in, carrying down trees, and thus impeding the navigation. On the same day, they passed the mouth of the Putumayo, half a mile wide at its mouth, with an estuary a mile wide. The water is clearer than that of the Amazon. It is navigable a journey of two months above its mouths in canoes. The Brazilian slaves escape, by way of this river, into Grenada. The next rivers he passed were the Jutay and the Jurua, the former navigable 540 miles, and the latter 780. The Indians on the banks of these rivers are very hostile. M. Castelnau relates that there is a pigmy race of Indians, said to be living on the Jurua, whose stature does not exceed 3½ feet; and that another tribe have tails, and are a mixture of Indians and Coata monkeys. These strange stories have arisen from mistaking the Coata monkey for a man. These monkeys are large, black, and pot-bellied, being about 2½ feet high. They have a few thin hairs on the top of their head, says Lieut. H., and look very like an old negro.

On the 16th of December, 1851, the party passed the two mouths of the Japura, the largest 100 yards wide. The water is clear, and the depth of the mouth about 50 feet. The current is about three-quarters of a mile per hour, and the river can be navigated a month in canoes, going up the stream. The Indians on its banks kill white men when they can—a consequence of the old Brazilian system of hunting Indians for slaves. Besides the usual products of the valley of the Amazon already mentioned, this river affords the carajuru, a very brilliant scarlet dye, not yet introduced into commerce. It is as brilliant and beautiful as cochineal.

The Amazon, at the mouth of the Japura, in latitude 2½° S., and longitude 67° W., is four or five miles wide, separated into channels by islands.

On the 17th of December, Lieut. H. arrived at Egos, a place of 800 inhabitants, the largest place above Borra. It has eight or ten commercial houses that carry on a thriving trade with Peru and Pará. The trade is carried on in schooners of 30 or 40 tons. Egos is 1,450 miles from the mouth of the Amazon, and the round voyage is made in schooners in five months.

There are five vessels in this trade, which is worth about $38,000 annually. Negro slaves are numerous at Egos. A common negro is worth $250, and a mechanic $500. They are difficult to keep, the route to Peru, Ecuador, and New-Grenada, being easy. At Egos, Lieut. H. saw monkeys with faces "of a very pretty rose color."

At Egos, Lieut. H. found the temperature of boiling water only 208°.2, which was 3° below that of Santa Cruz, more than 1,000 miles above Egos, on the Huallaga. At Santa Cruz, two days above the mouth of the Huallaga, the boiling point of water was 211°.2; at Nauta, 305 miles below Santa Cruz, on the Amazon, it was 211°.3; and at Pebas, 175 miles below Nauta, it was 211°.1. If these observations can be relied on, they prove that Egos has an elevation of 1,500 feet above that of Santa Cruz, which is situated more than 1,000 miles *up stream* of it. It is difficult to believe, that in *descending* the Huallaga and Amazon 1,000 miles, Lieut. H. could have actually *ascended* 1,500 feet: there was probably some error in his observations. The boiling point of water depends upon many other things besides elevation; and unless these are noted, mistakes are liable to occur. From Egos downward to Pará, he found a regular increase in the temperature required for boiling, which at Pará was found to be 211°.5.

Lieut. H. estimates the elevation of Nauta, which is 2,325 miles from the sea, at 365 feet above the sea level. This would give the river a fall of about .16 of a foot per mile, a decrease which he thinks would hardly give the river its actual average velocity of 2½ miles per hour.

Lieut. Herndon accounts for these singular results, indicated by the boiling point at different places on the Amazon, by supposing "that the trade-winds are dammed up by the Andes, and that the atmosphere in those parts is, from this cause, compressed, and consequently heavier than it is farther from the mountains, though over a less elevated portion of the earth." He thence infers that the barometer is not to be relied on at the eastern foot of the Andes.

Two days below Egos, 115 miles, the river was only a mile wide, 60 feet deep, and running between bold red cliffs. There is always a strong eastern wind blowing up the Amazon, which creates so much sea that small boats descending are obliged to keep close in shore. On the 3d of January, 1852, the party arrived at the mouth of the Purus, which they found to be three-fourths of a mile wide, and the Amazon 1½ miles. It is a fine-looking river, with moderately bold shores; but its waters are muddy, like the Amazon. Condamine states that, in sounding the Purus, at its mouth, he found no bottom at 618 feet. This induced Lieut. Herndon to make accurate soundings; and he found 108 feet of water one mile from its mouth, with a bottom of soft blue mud, nearer the left than the right bank; in mid-stream he found 78 feet; and in the strong ripples where the two rivers meet, 96 feet. In the Amazon, opposite the mouth, he found 138 feet. The Purus has a sluggish current of not over three-quarters of a mile per hour. The temperature of the water is 84½°, that of the Amazon 83°, and the air 82°.

At this point, on the Amazon, the whole country seemed to be cut up with channels from river to river, such as are called in Louisiana *bayous*. These on the Amazon frequently widen out into lakes. The banks of the Amazon, below the Purus, begin to lose the character of savage and desolate solitude that characterizes them above, and show signs of habitation and cultivation. Farms, with neatly framed and plastered houses, are scattered along the banks, rendering the general aspect more cheerful.

On the 5th of January, Lieut. H. passed a rock in the Amazon, called *calderon*, or big pot, from the bubbling and boiling of the water over it when the river is full. It was then six or eight feet above the surface of the water. It is probably a huge boulder swept down from the sides of the Andes. On the same day, they arrived at the mouth of the Rio Negro, so called from its black water. It was the largest branch that they had, thus far down, seen. The entrance is broad and superb, the mouth being 2 miles wide, with a depth of water of 105 feet in the middle, and with little or no current. The left bank was bold and rocky.

Seven miles from the mouth of the Rio Negro is the town of Borra, the capital of the Province of Amazonas, built on an elevated and broken ground, 1,475 feet above the level of the sea. The houses are generally of one story, of wood and adobe, and with tiled roofs. The population, in 1848, was 3,614 souls, not including 234 slaves. The soil, in the immediate neighborhood of the town, is poor, as also the timber. The country around is, as everywhere on the Amazon, filled with Indians. They are thorough savages, among whom infanticide is very common. They kill their children, from an indisposition to take care of them.

The Rio Negro is navigable about 400 miles to the Rio Maraya, where rapids commence. These rapids, however, may be passed by steamers. The confluence of the Cassiquiari with the Rio Negro is about 660 miles above Borra. The Cassiquiari, as is well known, connects the Rio Negro with the Orinoco; and the passage from the Amazon to the mouth of the Orinoco, by way of the Cassiquiari, may be made by steamers in 19½ days.

In the Province of Amazonas, of which Borra is the capital, there is scarcely any attempt at the regular cultivation of the earth; but the natural productions of its soil are most varied and valuable. In the forest are 23 well-known varieties of palms, all more or less useful. Most of them bear fruit which is edible in some shape or other. There are 22 kinds of trees fit for ship-building; 33 for houses; and 12 (some of which are very beautiful) for cabinet work. There are 12 kinds of trees that exude milk from their bark. The India-rubber tree is one. The milk of the mururé is said to possess extraordinary medical virtues in the cure of mercurial diseases. The whole valley of the Amazon, indeed, abounds in medicinal plants.

The banks of the rivers and lakes in the Province of Amazonas abound with wild rice and myriads of water-fowls. There is also in the province a species of wild cotton, with a delicate and glossy fibre like silk, growing in balls on a very large tree, which is nearly leafless. Cotton is planted there in August, and the tree bears three years. Another valuable product of the country is the Brazil-nut, which grows on a very tall tree.

There is a curious public mail system on the Amazon, which shows the economy and civilization of the Brazilians. At every town on the river there is established a post-office; but there are no public conveyances provided for carrying the mails. This important defect in the system is remedied, by the Brazilian government, by requiring the captains of all vessels, going up or down the river, to report themselves at the offices, and to receive and transport the mail safely to the next office, after giving a receipt for the same.

On the 8th of February, Lieut. Herndon left Borra, and proceeded down the Amazon, which, at the mouth of the Rio Negro, he found to be 198 feet deep. About sixty miles below the mouth of the Rio Negro, he passed a sugar plantation. The cane is planted there in December, and is ready to cut in ten months. The soil is black and rich, and the cane does not require replanting more than once in twenty years. Lumber in that region is also a profitable article for shipping down the Amazon. It brings at Para $40 per thousand.

About ninety miles below the Rio Negro is the mouth of the Madeira, the largest tributary of the Amazon. It drains an area of 40,000 square leagues. The Amazon, at the mouth of the Madeira, is two miles wide. The Madeira has two mouths, the western three-quarters of a mile wide, and the eastern one and a quarter miles. The current of the Madeira is about three and a quarter miles per hour, but it varies according to the season. About 450 miles above its mouth, its navigation is impeded by rapids, which occupy a space of 350 miles in length. Above these rapids it is again navigable for large vessels. The rapids of the Madeira are said to be passable in high water. Its tributaries, the Beni and Mamoré, and the Itenes or Guaporé, are all navigable far up into the heart of Brazil, and even to Bolivia.

The difference between high and low water mark on the Amazon, between the Rio Negro and Madeira rivers, is about forty feet. Within a quarter of a mile from the shore the water is 120 feet deep, and the current about three miles per hour. This increase of current is ascribed to the Madeira. The country in this portion of the valley of the Amazon is much cut up with lakes.

On the 24th of February, Lieut. H. arrived at Villa Nova, not far below the Madeira. It is the frontier town of the Province of Amazonias, and has a custom-house. It contains about 200 inhabitants, and is 959 feet above the level of the sea. All foreign merchandise brought up the river pays a duty of one and a half per cent. *ad valorem;* and all domestic produce passing down pays a duty of half per cent. The duties collected in two months amounted to $1,000, which may serve to indicate the trade of the river.

The region of country about Villa Nova is thought to be the most desirable on the Amazon. In some parts the country is a great grazing plain or prairie, the soil of which is very rich, and adapted to the cultivation of cotton, coffee, and cocoa. The rivers abound with fish; any number of cattle may be pastured upon the plains; and the neighboring woods yield cloves, cocoa, castanhas, India rubber, guarana, sarsaparilla, and copaiba. It is also said to be a healthy country.

On the Romos, a tributary entering the Amazon about a league below Villa Nova, is the town of Manés, containing 3,790 whites and 82 slaves. One hundred and five miles below Villa Nova is Obidos, near the mouth of the Trombetas, a very large river, running through a fine grazing country. The cocoa plantations in this region are numerous, and exceedingly beautiful. The seeds of the cocoa are planted in beds in August, and in the following January are transplanted in squares of about 12 feet. In three years they bear fruit, and for 70 or 80 years afterwards. There are two crops a year. The labor of one slave is sufficient for 2,000 bearing trees. The average yield is 25 arrobas for 1,000 trees, worth $1 per arroba.* Sometimes 50 arrobas are obtained from 1,000 trees.

Obidos is situated on a high, bold point on the Amazon, which is there one and a half miles wide, and over 200 feet deep. The coast there is, for several miles, 150 feet in height, of red earth, resting upon a red rock. The town contains about 500 inhabitants, and the district about 14,000.

---

* The arroba is 25½ pounds.

On the 1st of March the party arrived at Santarem, at the mouth of the Tapajos, one of the great southern tributaries of the Amazon, and a mile and a half wide at its mouth. The town, which is 460 miles from the Rio Negro, and 650 miles from the sea, is the largest on the river, after Pará. Its population is about 5,000 whites and 2,000 slaves, according to the official returns; these returns, however, everywhere on the river, include the inhabitants of all the cocoa plantations for miles round. The town proper contains about 2,000 souls. It has a church and several primary schools. The trade of the place is considerable.

The Tapajos is navigable for large vessels 15 days against a strong current, or 200 miles including some rapids, which can only be passed by unloading. By ascending the Rio Preto, a branch of the Tapajos, the town of *Diamantina*, in the gold and diamond region, is reached, situated on the dividing ridge between the waters which flow north into the Amazon, and those which flow south into the Rio de la Plata. The Cuiabá River, a branch of the Paraguay, approaches within 90 miles of Diamantina, on the Tapajos, and there is a regular portage established between that city and the city of Cuiabá, on the Cuiabá River. A portage of only 18 miles is also found by ascending the Arinos, a branch of the Tapajos. This latter portage admits of vehicles drawn by oxen, whence it is inferred that it cannot be very difficult.

Cuiabá is a flourishing city of 10,000 inhabitants, and can be approached by large vessels from the ocean through the Paraguay, which is now open to the world. But as Cuiabá is in Brazil, the navigation of the Paraguay is of no use to it, and it receives all its supplies by an overland route from Rio Janeiro, or by way of the Tapajos. So much for the narrow, half-civilized policy of the Brazilian government, which deprives its own cities of the benefit even of navigable rivers.

The diamond region about Diamantina and the head waters of the Paraguay and Tapajos have produced, up to 1849, more than $10,000,000 worth of diamonds. The diamond region is very unhealthy, and has cost Brazil the lives of 100,000 men. The expense of living at Diamantina is very great, merchandise being worth there 800 per cent. above its cost at Pará. Traders between Para and Diamantina bring back gold, diamonds, and hides, and realize a profit in eight months, on the original outlay, of 500 per cent. If Brazil could be induced to throw open the navigation to the city of Cuiabá, by way of the Cuiabá and Paraguay rivers, steamers could penetrate the very heart of this diamond region, and the trade with that country would be the source of unbounded wealth for many years to come.

The banks of the Tapajos are infested with hostile Indians, who frequently attack the whites; and fevers are prevalent. Venomous insects, vampire bats, and enormous alligators also abound. The insects torment the traveller by day, and the bats suck his blood by night; while the hideous noise of thousands of alligators preclude sleep; and sometimes animals seize the traveller while stretched on the ground at night to rest his weary limbs. Tigers and panthers are also numerous and dangerous.

On the 2d of April, Lieut. Herndon, after passing several small towns, arrived at Gurupá, a place of about 300 inhabitants. Here the Amazon is 10 miles wide. This place is about 500 miles from the sea, and about 35 miles above the commencement of the great estuary of the Amazon. The river suddenly flares out into an immense bay, which is probably 150 miles across in its widest part. This bay is full of islands, dividing it into innumerable channels. Near the centre of it is the great island of Marajo, having an area of 10,000 square miles, and dividing the Amazon into two great channels. There are, as yet, no accurate charts of the mouth of the Amazon, the government of Brazil doggedly refusing any surveys to be made. The shores of the islands are all low, the trees standing in the water.

Thus have we followed Lieut. Herndon in his explorations from the head waters of the Huallaga, in Peru, to the mouth of the Amazon, the valley of which we have seen to be the most fertile and extensive of any on the globe, but unfortunately shut up from the world by a government too ignorant to appreciate the benefits it would confer upon itself, as well as others, by throwing the Amazon open. Brazil, in common with the entire Spanish and Portuguese races, is jealous of the progressive tendencies of the Anglo-Saxons, and hence the prohibition. She may, however, be taught, by skilful management, to see the immense advantages that she herself would derive from opening the Amazon, and it is to be hoped that our government will leave nothing untried to effect so desirable an object.

Peru has yielded, so far as she is concerned; but as the mouth of the Amazon belongs to Brazil, the Peruvian grants avail us but little. Brazil, through its Consul, in New-York, has warned our citizens against any attempts to ascend the Amazon; so that nothing further can be done, in attempting to avail ourselves of the benefits of the treaty with Peru, until our government obtains some concessions from Brazil. That the navigation of the Amazon would greatly increase the revenues of Brazil is manifest, since we could hardly expect that she would admit our exports into that river duty free. Our Minister at Rio Janeiro should be specially instructed to persevere in his efforts to negotiate a treaty with Brazil, which would open the river to us on favorable terms.

Brazil, in violation of the well-settled doctrine of International Law, "that no nation, holding the mouth of a river, has a right to bar the way to market of a nation holding higher up, or to prevent that nation's trade and intercourse with whom she will by a great highway common to both," has refused to open the river to Peru, Bolivia, or any other nation; and has entered into a contract with one De Souza, giving him the exclusive privilege of navigating the river for the next thirty years, giving him a bonus of $80,000 per annum. Souza contracts to put six steamers on the Amazon, the first trip of which is to be made in May, 1854. Such are the stringent terms of the contract, that it is very doubtful whether he will be able to comply with them; but it will delay the action of our government until he fails, which will most probably be the result.

We have thus endeavored to condense for the readers of the REVIEW the more important portions of Lieut. Herndon's valuable and exceedingly interesting work; but we must advise the reader to read the work itself, as every page is filled with absorbing details.

Art. III.—THE TELEGRAPH.

Continued.)

BUT why multiply instances of a seemingly trifling character, in which the character of the telegraph is the more strikingly visible? * We have not yet begun to appreciate this agent as

---

*Another purpose which electro-magnetism is made to serve, consists in the invention of an apparatus for the preservation of human life on railroads. With the multiplicity of railroads, there will be naturally an augmentation of the risks of accident; and in the United States the national proclivity is to construct in haste, always with an eye to cheapness, and without those expensive guards which abroad render the railroad systems much more secure. The apparatus just invented is thus described in the *Philadelphia Ledger:*

"AN EXCELLENT APPARATUS FOR THE PREVENTION OF RAILROAD ACCIDENTS.—Yesterday we witnessed the operation of a model of a 'Railroad Drawbridge and Switch Safety Telegraph,' invented by William C. McRea, of this city. The invention consists in the arrangement of a galvanic battery and circuit, in such a manner that the engineer of a train of cars may, upon the train approaching a drawbridge or switch, be advised with certainty of the position of the draw or switch, in time to prevent all danger in case of their being so placed that the train cannot with safety pass. It is also intended to advise the engineer or conductor of one train as to the position of an approaching train, and by which means collisions will certainly be prevented.

"The model which we saw illustrates the means by which accidents may be prevented at drawbridges, by means of extending a wire across the draw of a bridge, to a safe distance from the draw on each side, and these connecting to an insulated rail on the track.

"When a train of cars approaches the bridge on either side, so that the wheels from which wires or other metallic substance are connected with an electroposterity will appreciate it, because it does not possess the external features which should distinguish it from a mere novelty, such as are exhibited by many inventions infinitely inferior to it in every respect. The telegraph is not pretentious. What is it, indeed, as it appears to the eye? A series of rough and uncouth posts studded along our railroad tracks; crossed by wires, sometimes two in number, sometimes half a dozen. It has a marked resemblance to nothing, and is certainly forbidding, viewed in the light of utility. It stretches along through swamps and over mountains, penetrates forests, and leaps rivulets and ravines; now hid by the summer foliage; now nude, and ghastly, and skeleton-like, with the snows and frosts of winter partially enrobing it. It attracts our attention, as we whirl along in the railroad car, just as we would recognize a series of finger-posts—nothing more. And as we enter the environs of cities, we see the wires encumbered with the wrecks of children's kites, dangling in mid-air, and flapping with the breeze. We are amused, pass on, and rivet our attention on something else. The telegraph, as we are permitted to regard it, inspires no profound emotions. There is nothing in the knotted, bark-clad uprights, and mile-spun wires, to arouse thought in the breasts of the millions, or sublime reflections in the minds even of the thousands. What of life it has is hidden away; and the tabernacle of its heart and lungs is a novelty to the curious, which they are not permitted to examine. Nor is the telegraph

magnet, which is to be placed upon the locomotive, touch the track at the place where the wire is so connected, if the draw is closed a circuit will be completed, and the electro-magnet being in the circuit, will cause the movement of a lever, which sets in motion an alarm. When the wheels of the cars shall have passed the place in the track where the wire is connected, the circuit is again broken, and the lever falls into its former position.

"If the draw of the bridge be open, when the train approaches, the circuit will not be closed in consequence of a part of the circuit being separated at the draw, and no effect will be produced upon the electro-magnet; consequently, the bell will not ring, by which the engineer of the train may know that the draw is open, in sufficient time to prevent all danger.

"It will be readily seen that the same will apply to switches, as the displacing of a switch may be made to operate in the same manner as the opening of the draw. By extending the wire from one switch to another, where it is usual for trains to meet and pass each other, the same apparatus which is affixed on the engine will serve to notify the engineer or conductor of one train as to whether the train which they expect to meet has passed a given point. By this means, collisions of trains will be with certainty prevented.

"One of the best features which we observe in the invention is, that in case anything in connection with the machinery to be used should, by any neglect on the part of those employed by the railroad company, or by any other means, gets out of order, the worst that can possibly happen, would be the stopping of the train for a moment, until it could be ascertained what was wrong, thereby avoiding the possibility of danger to life or property.

"The attention of railroad directors and superintendents should be directed to this apparatus, as it certainly appears to be the best mechanical method for suplying the requisite signals yet invented."

clamorous. We may hear it breathe, listen to the pulsations of its mechanism; but we pause in vain to catch any other sound when it addresses its language to the four corners of the earth; the medium is a dark, mysterious, vague tongue; potent as it is eloquent, yet voiceless as the heralds of heaven, when they go out with the decrees of the Immutable. Like them, this terrestrial messenger performs its mission without clamor, without the visible concert of a supreme power, whether God or man. Like them, this courier cleaves space in silence; and, darting from zone to zone, from land to land, commutes, in its volitile flight, all time, by the mere effort of a directing will.

The monetary exchanges of the world could not dispense with the telegraph. It has become a necessary agent in commercial pursuits, a counsellor in financial projects, and a special envoy in political, domestic, and social affairs. It is a promoter of peace, a missionary of religion, a disturber to sanguinary slumbers and war. Nations consult it ere they buckle on the sword; and national comity and the equilibrium of peace are maintained by the part it is made to play in the adjustment of great national questions. Governments cherish it who seek tranquillity, and aim to augment their prosperity. Tyrants regard it as an engine calculated to thwart their will, and tremblingly fear it on their thrones. Guilt, whether in high life or low—in politics or in social circles—in the civic system or martial constitution—guilt of every shade and degree is brought to reflect, and perhaps often to shrink from the perpetration of deeds which this many-mouthed trumpeter would divulge to greedy ears far and near. Crime does not stalk at large with its customary bold front when the remembrance of this swift-footed tale-bearer and accuser overtakes it. "It is due to say," writes the Vienna correspondent of the London *Chronicle*, "that Austria feels a greater degree of security against another rising of her subjects, in the fact that she possesses and controls an extensive system of telegraphy, than she would feel if surrounded by a well-organized army in her pay of ten times the magnitude of the military subjects and hirelings she has now at command." Prior to the establishment of the telegraph in Europe, the legions of the Turk could have descended upon the dominions of Austria, or France upon Italy, or England upon Spain, or Russia upon Prussia, before intelligence of the fact could have borne warning, and allowed time for preparation by either for the inhospitable reception of the other. Innumerable instances might be recited from history of bloody and exterminating wars having been provoked or occasioned by the failure of couriers in their missions, and the want of facilities for the dispatch of intelligence in extraordinary emergencies." Marque, a French statist, is of opinion that a twentieth of all the sanguinary conflicts that have ensued between the nations of Europe, from the tenth to the eighteenth century, have resulted from this cause. He adduces instances, and describes the pecular circumstances of each. "Without doubt," he concludes, "had the means of communication among nations been anything like those even of the eighteenth century, in the time of the Crusades, Christianity would now have a bulwark in the East powerful enough to overawe and hold in subjection all the empires of Asia." The descent of a nation upon nation could not at present take place without the intelligence of hostile intentions being known everywhere almost simultaneously with the first indication of preparation. This fact is more influential in deterring aggression on the part of tyrants, than any considerations of magnanimity or conscientious promptings of forbearance. Crime, as we have said, shrinks from this terrible accuser. Quite recently a German was arrested on board a packet ship in the port of New-York, which had already weighed anchor, and was about putting to sea, bound for Liverpool. He had left Baltimore the day previously, with the suspicion tracking him that he was a murderer. "But," exclaimed the appalled wretch, addressing the officer, "how should you know that I came to New-York—that I am the person you seek? I have not stopped an hour on the way, but have come right through. Besides, I left there at midnight, six hours before people were stirring this morning." "You forget," replied the officer; "the telegraph travels faster than you do." "Ah! the telegraph. Had I thought of that ——" And a time *will* arrive when criminals will think of it —yea, be influenced to desist from many a deed of guilt, which they would otherwise recklessly commit. A powerful check will be thus introduced, morally superior to the terms which the laws, enforced by the mere exercise of a police system unaided by this auxiliary, can otherwise produce.

Regarded in another light, the field of utility the telegraph is destined to occupy is boundless. In operating to facilitate commerce and international intercourse, the sphere of its diverse duties will be to disseminate truth, to reform religious abuses, to remodel social systems, to remove barriers to evangelization, to mitigate sectarian evils, to exterminate chronic prejudices, and to underlay the whole physical structure of society with a basis of peace, rendered durable by the cements of the arts and sciences.

The career of mankind is progress, and its destiny happiness. Whatever interposes to counteract progress, or to misshape this destiny, is the result of man's own actions, springing from errors in his political organization or laxity in his morals. The study of physiology and the problems of life is a soothing, but sometimes mournful occupation. Reflection in summing up the past, and imagination in picturing the future, have voluminous material for answering the question whether we have kept pace with the inevitable design of the Almighty, or have disregarded the natural laws, manifested in all being, for our animal and eternal welfare. Among the purposes of the great design is, to multiply our species; another, to cultivate peace; another, to increase prosperity; another, to generalize knowledge; another, to promote Christianity; another, to establish a unity of human action, based on a foundation of the unity of all languages. The confounding of tongues, in the first instance, was for a wise purpose, no doubt; but that the Creator intended that we should live as "strangers to each other" for all time, would be a deduction as unwise as antagonistical to revelation. We are commanded to go forth—to plant in every vineyard—to preach the Gospel in every land—to erect the monuments of industry, commerce, and intercourse among each other, wherever the offspring of man has obtained a foothold. Every instinct of reason teaches us that the earth was created and mantled for our subsistence; that no single spot or spots were to be our habitation; that the original unity of language would tend to a close and degenerating affility; that its confusion would sunder the ties of social relationship, drive men forth as wanderers, and compel the ordination of communities; that after a period, in obedience to the great design, we should draw near to each other again, but not until the magnitude of the wonders of Providence, and the extent of the bounties he had prepared for us, had in some measure been revealed to our senses; that, in accordance with these laws, we have moved on in the spheres of our duties and in the realization of our happiness. It is a question, then, easily answered in the affirmative, whether the discovery of the electric telegraph was not made at a period most fortunate for benefiting man, and extending the Divine word. Certainly no preceding age or generation has afforded equal facilities to this end—no epoch has been so fruitful of the requisites. Civilization has knocked at the doors of the last of the insulated empires; true, religious worship, like sweet incense, ascends to heaven in the wildernesses of Asia, and the deserts of Africa; and commercial intercourse has just assumed the sceptre of the world. Now the telegraph is invited to complete what has been so auspiciously begun—it is required to bring nations into hourly conference—to assimilate all languages to a common understanding.

Let us be understood. We do not suppose that the feat will be a transfusion of tongues into a common language—that Turk and Hottentot will forget their vernacular, and barter and exchange in flippant French or prosy English. We mean that the collateral results will be the same—that, in effect, the Coptic will be as familiar to the ears of the Celt as the Usbec will be to the Anglo-Saxon. In *effect*, the English, the French, the German languages, are the same in the countries in which they respectively prevail. New-York is made up of a population of distinct national elements. Society there is an admixture of English, French, German, Spanish, Dutch, Swedish, and other languages. Yet, were it purely a community of either of these tongues, could it exist in a freer state of harmony—business prosper on a larger scale, or be established on a firmer basis—security to life and property be better attended—religion have a less obstructed field in which to operate—or the inculcation of knowledge meet with fewer philological drawbacks? Intercourse has assimilated national features, modified prejudices, and familiarized the languages of each to the understanding of the others.

Assuming, on the uncertain data of geographers, that the population of the globe is seven hundred and forty millions, what, we ask, is the amount of social, and political, and commercial intercourse among them? Almost the whole of Eastern Asia, with its three hundred millions, has been, to the present time, closed against the advances of the rest of the world, and encourages but a limited exchange of commodities and sentiments at home. Central Asia, in addition to this, is peopled with races and tribes, peculiar for nothing more than their nomadic customs, their freedom from govermental restraints, their fierceness, and their ignorance. Africa has not even been explored. Europe has barely attained the scale of enlightenment; and the races of America know as little of each other, as do the population of the Azores of the inhabitants of the Arctic Seas. And, multiplying our inquiries, we discover that civilization occupies a spot on the earth's surface not larger than one of those patches, which here and there dot the ocean, designated on our maps as islands. Nay, such as profess Christianity might be conveniently gathered within the Valley of the Mississippi, and yet would not overstock it. Everywhere else, scattered over this terrestrial paradise, ignorance and idolatry are king. The fact, in its ulterior bearings, does not impress us with the force it should. Is it not evident, that in order to overcome the prejudices of nations, cause them to abandon their non-productive modes of life, their superstitions, their idolatries, instil into them habits of industry, and raise them to a parity in knowledge and general refinement with ourselves, we must first of all invent a means to reach their defects, which can only be done through a medium of language? Let us see how far we have progressed in this way. The Caucasian race is composed of fourteen distinct families, each of which speaks a different dialect; which dialect, frequently, is split into several tongues and *patois*. We have thus, probably, one hundred and fifty dialects of a single race—how many subdivisions, has never been ascertained. The Mongols present us with three great families, with divisions and subdivisions of dialect. Next we have the Malay race, and their dialects; and finally, the Negro race, and their dialects. On the confusion of tongues, at the building of the Tower of Babel, the families of the various tribes separated, scattered, and founded communities—these communities empires. The language of each family, peculiar then in itself, followed them; and as population increased and spread, the mother tongue became incorporated with the mother tongue of another tribe, and thus were formed dialects. By the same process, families, withdrawing and forming a community in themselves, caused a subdivision of tongues; and thus the process of enlarging a language, and at the same time multiplying the genera, has gone on. In point of numbers, the Caucasian race has been estimated at 380,000,000; the Mongolian, at 250,000,000; the Malayan, at 20,000,000; the African, at 90,000,000; and the American aboriginal, at 10,000,000. Among the Caucasian race, free intercourse is kept up by less than two-thirds the aggregate families. Three-fourths are still in a state of barbarism, idolatry, and brutal ignorance; or live without any visible forms of government, are in hostility one community or family with another, are predatory in their habits, idle in their pursuits, grossly dissipated, and know nothing of the principles of commerce, or even of the conventionalities of traffic.* The Mongol race, as a whole, is degraded below the lowest classes or tribes of the Caucasian race. Ignorance, superstition, and idolatry, prevail among them. They have established governments; but such governments as are a disgrace to humanity, rather than a redeeming feature in their political organization. Their traffic is conducted on no system: it partakes of the character of the trade of savages; but little more enlightened in principle or detail. The Malayan race is distinguished for its barbarity, its ferocity, its godlessness, its licenses in morals, and its hatred of the Caucasian race. Its commerce is a series of depredations and thefts, and its government is based upon no code but that which power sets up for itself over weakness. Its religion is idolatry, and has not the merit even of consistency. Of the African and American races, it need only be said, that their ignorance is only equalled by their degeneracy; their superstitions by their fidelity to pagan rites; their honesty by their superb disdain of labor; and their commerce by their total want of enterprise. So that, to the fourth part of the Caucasian race alone, can we ascribe the benefits which have been already bestowed upon humanity. By their energy and indomitable perseverance, the lights of truth and civilization have been made to dawn on many a darkened land; but there is still work to perform, formidable beyond precedent.

---

* I have here adopted an estimate which may admit of dispute:—"Among the Catholic, Greek, and Protestant population, full 130,000,000 out of their whole number, 228,000,000, certainly do not deserve a higher rank. We are considering man, in this view, individually as well as collectively; morally as well as physically; socially as well as politically. The facts may be startling, but they will bear the closest scrutiny."—MALTHUS.

We have stated, on other authority, that civilization, and the arts of peace and the sciences, have been fostered and extended by one-fourth, or 98,000,000, of the Caucasian race. This progress, so far, has been to evangelize or Christianize 228,000,000 inclusive, out of an aggregate population for the world, of 740,000,000. This evangelization has been confined almost entirely to the Caucasian race; but let it not be inferred that more than one-fourth, or 98,000,000, of the 228,000,000 claiming to be Christianized, are in reality enlightened. We proceed to classify, as follows, according to another estimate:—

	Enlightened.	Superstitious or Idolatrous.	Total Population.
Catholics	26,000,000	90,000,000	
Greek	10,000,000	60,000,000	
Protestant	35,000,000	7,000,000	
	71,000,000	157,000,000	
Judaism	1,000,000	7,000,000	
Mohammedanism	—	120,000,000	
Brahimnism	—	90,000,000	
Schamanism	—	60,000,000	
Buddhism	—	130,000,000	
Fetichism	—	100,000,000	
Nondescript	—	4,000,000	
	72,000,000	668,000,000	
		72,000,000	
		740,000,000	740,000,000
Caucasian			380,000,000
Mongolian			250,000,000
African			80,000,000
Malayan			20,000,000
American			10,000,000
			740,000,000

Disregarding one part of this estimate, and taking the Catholic, Protestant, and Greek population, amounting to 228,000,000, as the evangelized portion of the Caucasian race, which numbers 380,000,000; and conferring upon that portion the well-earned title of Reformers of the Age, we perceive that the myriads to which they are still opposed exceed the startling aggregate of 500,000,000 souls. What shall enlighten these enormous multitudes, and inspire them with sentiments of revealed truth, and habits of industry and frugality, if not conquests of peace or decimation by the sword? And if by either, the telegraph will be an important medium or auxiliary. Its mission may be to announce warlike bulletins, communicate military orders, or regulate army movements; and its mission may be to bring pagan countries into closer proximity with the enlightened Caucasian race, by hourly conferences on the state of trade, in communicating uncommon events, or transmitting mercantile orders from continent to continent—all the while, and in either case, *assimilating all languages to a common understanding*, and engendering a concordance of national sympathies.

When once the telegraph has triumphed over the difficulties of language, it will have brought adverse nations into familiar contact. Human experience, and the history of human existence, combine to prove the consequences of such contact. The predominating features of character in a people, when exerted in opposition to the weaker national traits of another, will ultimately acquire paramount sway, and influence to good or evil. We have living and recorded examples in point. The influence of the enlightened governments of Europe on the semi-civilized dynasties of Russia and Turkey has operated to break down their prejudices, and to inspire them with purer sentiments, and a more active zeal in that which appertains to human happiness, than would have resulted from any inbred convictions of their own. When once the inhabitants of the countries bordering on the Mediterranean began to understand each other, external restraints gave way; extensive intercourse ensued; the arts began to flourish; barter and exchange, at first limited to local arenas, begot external commerce; and universal prosperity attended their career. The influence on surrounding nations was speedily manifested in their abandonment of profitless pursuits, and in engaging in more wholesome employments. As barrier after barrier gave way before the onward march of civilized empire, cities arose even on barren rocks, and wealth flowed as in a stream into their capacious coffers. And now the commotion was felt beyond the Caucasus, the Black Sea, and the Baltic; and the hordes of a hardier people poured forward, burying under their heel the kingdoms that had so rapidly risen to power and opulence, as by magic, or the enchanter's wand. The civilization of the Mediterranean had set an example to the world, which the robust, courageous, and enterprising families of the North were not slow to profit by. The Phœnicians lost the empire of the sea; Athens rivalled Tyre; a Grecian city ruled over conquered Egypt; Carthage submitted to Rome; and Europe seized the sceptre of both hemispheres. We can very well, then, foresee what results will flow from the universal establishment of the telegraph, after the removal of philological prejudices. Contact on the part of the enlightened Caucasian race with the pagan races will be a mortal stab to their political relations and domestic adolescence. Disenthralment from vices, and governmental restraints, which are imposed by priestcraft or tyranny, and which are the more rigid because they are founded in bigotry or a jealousy of power, is no light labor. And among the nations to whom the hand of fellowship is extended, none have ever existed that have rivalled them in the exclusiveness or ferocity of their natures. The Japanese would not barter his isolation and repose for all the grandeur and wealth of the universe. The indolent felicity of the Chinese is more welcome to him than national integrity, if that is to be maintained at the cost of war. The Algerine would not abandon his piratical pursuits for all the prospective enjoyments of paradise. The Thug would readily exchange a limb for the liberty of cutting a throat. And so we might go on, enumerating the national proclivities and individual prejudices of the people with whom we have yet to deal, and whose superstitions, vices, and social organizations, contact, and example, or the ultimatum of the sword, must eventually break up. But we say again, we must rely upon commerce, of which the telegraph is an element, to accomplish this, rather than on pulpit eloquence, polemical arguments, or missionary perseverance. These may follow, but they can never successfully precede. Nor will the sword do the work more effectually. Diplomacy will utterly fail. Diplomacy and the sword go together. And whence do they arise? They would, in this instance, proceed from governments as hostile to each other—from a people of one race with as strong antipathies to each other, as can possibly distinguish the people against whom the engines of stratagem or carnage could be directed. From democratic governments, elective aristocracies, democratic monarchies, aristocratical monarchies, absolute monarchies, anarchies, ochtocracies, despotisms, and theocracies; Catholicism against Protestantism, and Greek against both; one State in a federation divided against another; two great parties in political conflict, and isms, like cancers, gnawing into each; Papal theocracy against Papal democracy; Presbyterianism against Methodism, and Episcopacy snarling at each. Why, if such *reforming* influences were at once, or gradually, to be poured upon paganism and idolatry, the doors would be shut upon civilization forever. The avalanche would prove a curse, not a blessing. "Already," writes a missionary of the Protestant faith, "the Popish anti-Christ begins to manifest its arrogance here." And here the first stone is thrown towards fomenting a brawl, and the Hindoo is expected to stand by, take part on both sides, and believe in both religions. Now, commerce knows no religion but God and Christ; sects it abominates;

schismatics it utterly repudiates. It conquers, not for the purpose of establishing demoralizing empires; not for any particular union of industry against another; not for the propagation of a set of political doctrines in enmity to a counter series; not for the welfare of a class opposed to the interests of a larger. These are not the characteristics of commerce; its attributes are lofty, equitable, and just in all things, in all aspects and in all tendencies. Its aim is peace, its end is happiness.

But we are admonished to draw our paper to a close. We shall conclude, therefore, by referring to the recent attempt to establish the telegraph in China. The effort has been made by Dr. D. J. Macgowan, formerly of New-York. He has been endeavoring to instruct Chinese pupils in the elements of abstract philosophy, with the view, through them, of inducing the government to patronize the undertaking he contemplates. We have before us a pamphlet by him, printed in the Chinese language, in which he explains the properties of electricity, galvanism, and magnetism—subjects of knowledge about which the natives are profoundly ignorant. He complains of the difficulty of forming an expressive nomenclature, but adds, that by means of the Manchoo Alphabet, and "about eighteen Chinese symbols," the necessary characters of the fifty thousand in the Chinese vocabulary may be readily explained on the telegraph dial-plate. Dr. Macgowan has ingeniously interwoven the elements of a useful science with those of the religious prejudices of the natives. "The decomposing power of the galvanic battery is explained for the purpose of showing the fallacy of so much of their philosophy and mythology as is connected with the theory of the Five Elements; reference being also made to facts in astronomy, optics, chemistry, and anatomy, which in like manner scatter to the winds their notions relative to planets, colors, metals, and viscera, in which the Chinese enumerate five of each." The excessive veneration of the Chinese for antique doctrines and theories is one of the principal difficulties which meet the reformer on every hand. "Scarcely less startling than electricity," continues Dr. Macgowan, "to a Chinese philosopher, is the position assumed respecting the relative knowledge of ancients and moderns. It is maintained that, inasmuch as the human race is above two thousand years older than in the time of Confucius and Mencius, and still more venerable compared with the remote period of Yau and Shun, accumulated years and experience necessarily render the opinions of the present age of extreme value, because of its ripe maturity." Unless these prejudices are lessened or wholly removed, all attempts to instruct the Chinese in modern sciences must utterly fail. Dr. Macgowan adds, virtually confirming the hypothesis we have just advanced, "In efforts for the evangelization of China, it should be remembered that it is not idolatry and Buddhism with which we have mainly to contend, but with materialism and atheism, strongly posted in the minds of the literati, whose influence over the masses is unbounded. Hence the necessity which exists for a peculiar class of works, in which, by aid of modern science, the unsoundness of their own philosophy may be demonstrated, and some of the elementary truths of Christianity made evident. Yet it is not the admirable treatises of a Paley nor of a Chalmers that is now needed, but such as will teach the physical sciences in their connection with natural theology, care being taken that, while the irrefragable arguments they afford of the existence and attributes of God, and the reasonableness of the Christian religion, are made clear, they should not be so burdened with the theological argument as to hinder their employment as text-books on the subjects of which they treat." Dr. Macgowan's essay on the telegraph teaches Christianity as opposed to materialism; the utility of modern science as compared with ancient conservatism in philosophy; and the pre-eminence of modern knowledge over the mythological and metaphysical notions the Chinese possess. The religious part of the essay, which embraces the philosophical diagrams, with their explanations, is founded on three extracts from native authors: 1. "Heaven only is one God;" 2. "All mankind are brethren," from a disciple of Confucius; 3. "How delightful to have a friend from afar," from the Sage himself. The war of dynasties in the Celestial Empire, whether it terminates in favor of the insurgents or the imperial power, will have occurred for good. Enlightened Caucasian pioneers have, owing to a relaxation of the rigid rules of national exclusiveness, consequent on the conflict, been enabled to penetrate unmolested into the interior of the empire; and have established a basis of trade and intercourse that will operate to bring the natives and Europeans into permanent and friendly juxtaposition. "When once," says a journalist, "the Caucasian race sets foot in China, the Mongol empire of the East will have passed forever from it."

(To be completed in our next, with full STATISTICS *of the Telegraph in all countries.)*

Art. IV.—MODERN PHILANTHROPY AND NEGRO SLAVERY.

[Some months ago we furnished in the REVIEW a paper upon Slavery, which took what we called the Northern view of this subject, and was from the pen of Dr. Chickering, of Massachusetts. This paper gave offence to many of our Southern readers, and we were attacked in more than one quarter for exhibiting decided tendencies towards abolitionism and free-soilism. The ridiculous charge, of course, scarcely attracted our notice. No one, however, can object to the insertion of the annexed paper, prepared by a Northern gentleman, and sent to us for publication, nor accuse us of acting in other than the fairest manner, even towards the enemies of the South and our own. If the abolitionists will continue to agitate this subject of slavery, they must not be surprised if they are paid back in kind. They are, however, a body of which the South should stand in little apprehension now, since the current of Northern sentiment has been setting so decidedly against them within the last year or two. It is probable that there will be repose for a long time to come.]

LET us endeavor to ascertain what degree of candor or honesty attaches to those philanthropic professions which distinguish the movements of the so-called reformers of our day. If they proceed from mistaken views, though prompted by conscientious motives, the insanity of one class and fierce invectives of the other should receive that consideration which misdirected devotion may at all times command. If, on the contrary, a mercenary commerce is made of the virtues, and sanctity a cloak for the vilest of human hypocrisies, the community should not rest contented with a mere mental reprobation of their proceedings. This is a virtual encouragement to crime, under whatever aspect it presents itself, whether stamped with the sanction of the pulpit, or branded with the opprobrium of a judicial tribunal. And what action, the reader might exclaim, should community take to arrest an evil, such as unfolds itself in the guise of ranting atheists, law-breaking abolitionists, and crazy utilitarians? We do not believe that, in the economy of government, institutions may be framed to meet certain emergencies and not others—that society is so impoverished of expedients as to lack means and measures for every social and civil requirement. But to our inquiries.

Miss Dix, in her appeal to Congress for aid to erect an institution for the insane of the United States, reveals many ghastly features of the mock-humanity of the propagators of those isms which distract the country. She says, (page 7 of her Memorial): "I have myself seen in these United States, destitute of appropriate care and attention, more than nine thousand idiots, epileptics, and insane; and of this vast and most miserable company, sought out in jails, in poor-houses, and in private dwellings, there have been hundreds, nay, thousands, bound with galling chains, bowed beneath fetters and heavy iron balls, attached to drag chains, lacerated with ropes, scourged with rods, and terrified beneath storms of profane execrations and cruel blows; now subject to gibes, and scorn, and tormenting tricks—now abandoned to the most loathsome necessities, or subject to the vilest and most outrageous violations." The South undoubtedly has much of the sin here charged against society to answer for; but it does not claim to overflow with the milk of human kindness, and may be spared the reproaches levelled at those who make their humanity a boast. Miss Dix, although she evidently desires to treat the fact with impartiality, describes no such barbarities as characteristic of the South, which she depicts as existing in the North. Hear her: "In New-Hampshire, on the opening of the hospital for the reception of patients in 1842, many were removed from cages, small, unventilated cells in poor-houses, private houses, and the dungeons of the county jails. Some bore the marks of blows, * * * were badly frozen, so as to be maimed for life. In B., a furious maniac confined in jail; * * * a heap of filthy straw in one corner served for a bed; * * * food was introduced through a small aperture, called a slit, in the wall. * * * In P., nine insane men and women exposed to neglect and every species of injurious treatment; several chained; some in pens, or stalls in the barn, and treated less kindly than the brute beasts in their vicinity. * * * One insane woman was confined all winter in a jail, without fire; and from the severity of the cold, and her fixed posture, her feet were so much injured that it was deemed necessary to amputate them at the ankle. Another female was confined in a garret, where, from the lowness of the roof and her restrained position, she grew double, and is now obliged to walk with her hands as well as her feet upon the floor." In another place, "a man was confined in a cellar for many years without clothing"—kept "crouching in a heap of wet straw;" * * * "another, in a similar condition, is chained in an out-building;" another was "chained to the floor in an out-building, glad to pick the bones thrown into his kennel, like a beast." This case was reported to the legislature in 1832, and drew from a committee appointed by that body a report, abounding with withering rebukes, levelled at the heartlessness of those having the custody of maniacs, whether persons in private life or in public office; yet fourteen years afterwards, (1846,) the wretch was still an inmate of his pen, picking bones, and holding up, in his person and condition, to everlasting infamy, the unrighteousness of the people for whose charity he had become a supplicant. We continue our epitome from Miss Dix; but first let us present the reader with the subjoined extract from a report of the trustees of the New-Hampshire Hospital. Can chattel slavery in the South, exposed to the human gaze in its worst form, present anything so revolting as the picture of degradation here afforded? The report of the trustees says: "In eight of the twenty-four towns of Merrimack County, having an aggregate population of 1,200, there are eighteen insane paupers, part supported upon the town farms, and part set up and bid off at auction, from year to year, to be kept and maintained by the lowest bidder," who works him as he does his horses, and feeds him, alas! and clothes him, too, with less attention to comfort than the care he bestows upon his cattle. Miss Dix says: "According to the data afforded above, [she quotes this report in part,] there must be in the State several hundred insane, supported on the poor-farms, or put up at auction, annually." She adds: "In Vermont, the same neglects, ignorance, and sometimes brutal severity," prevail. "In the Eighth Annual Report of the Vermont Hospital for 1844, is the following record:—One case was brought to the hospital of a man who had been insane more than twelve years. During the four years previous to his admission he had not worn any article of clothing, and had been caged in a cellar, without feeling the influence of a fire. A nest of straw was his only bed and covering. His keeper (humane man!) thought it necessary to have an iron collar riveted about his neck," which being removed when he was taken to the hospital, and being otherwise differently treated, he was fast recovering his reason. "Another man had been sold to the lowest bidder. He had been for many years caged, and his feet were so badly frozen that he lost his toes." He had been supposed to be insane for thirty years; yet, when treated more in accordance with Christian charity, neither his cage nor his chains were deemed necessary, for he wholly recovered from his insanity and the brutality to which he had been subjected. "Another patient, a woman, sixty-one years of age, was taken to the hospital. She had been confined for several years in a half-subterranean cage," being "a cave excavated on the side of a hill near the house, and straw thrown in for a bed. No warmth was admitted, save what the changing seasons supplied." In Massachusetts we trace a repetition of like facts. "In 1841 and 1842," says Miss D., "I traced, personally, the condition of more than five hundred insane men and women in Massachusetts wholly destitute of appropriate care!" Her description of the treatment of these patients carries us back to the reign of heathenism, for it cannot apply to an age or a people pretending to civilization. Two or three cases must suffice. "In a cage, built under a wood-shed, fully exposed to all passers upon the public road, was a miserable, insane man, partially enveloped in a torn coverlet." This was his sole fire in winter. Straw was given him for a bed once a week. "In one county jail alone there were twenty-eight insane persons wholly neglected. At another poor-house, I found three confined in stalls in an out-building." In another out-house, Miss D. found "a woman confined in a room without a vestige of furniture, no fire, and not even clothes to her back. She sat crouched upon the floor, shivering with the intense cold." Distant from another poor-house a few rods "was a small wooden building, constructed of plank, affording a single room. This was unfurnished, save with a bundle of straw. The occupant of this comfortless abode was a young man, * * * chained." One end of the chain was attached to a staple in the floor, the other to an iron collar round the young man's neck. Miss Dix gives it as her deliberate opinion, that cruelty prevents a recovery of reason in ninety-nine cases in a hundred. If this be so, Massachusetts and all New-England would do well to embark in an enterprise of humanity at home before expending their charities and philanthropies for worthless objects abroad. In one place, Miss D. was led to a cavern in which a lunatic was chained. "My husband," said the wife of the warm-hearted keeper! "in winter, rakes out sometimes, of a morning, half a bushel of frost, and yet he (the lunatic) never freezes!" The wretched man had already passed three years in this dreadful abode. Let it be remembered, that these few cases cited are not selected for their extra hard-favored features. They are taken at random from the list, which, according to Miss Dix's statement, embraces between eight and nine thousand of a similar character which she has visited; and how many there may be in the North, in New-England, which have escaped her, wearing features even more horrifying, none can tell. One case in point we shall here introduce. A lunatic is confined, a few miles from Boston, (vide Miss Dix's Memorial,) in an out-building, without fire in winter, and himself barely covered with apparel. This poor creature is among strangers, is fed like a wild beast in a den, and never enjoys half the kindness which his keeper (if kindness he can manifest) heaps upon his dogs. The keeper receives a per diem, or monthly allowance, from the cousin of the demented man for his maintenance; but there all care for him stops. And who is this cousin? A merchant; a man whose name is extensively known on 'Change; one whose fair reputation is an incentive to every generous deed; one who holds his crazy cousin's property in trust; and one whose subscriptions to the anti-slavery cause outswell the sums ever subscribed by the fiercest fanatic among that sect. Let this announcement suffice for comment.

"Fifty thousand Africans," writes Mr. Tod, our Minister at the Court of Rio Janeiro, "are annually imported into Brazil, and sold as slaves for life." It is a curious and somewhat paradoxical fact, that while those who rank themselves under the abolition and woman's rights banners are so clamorous about the institution of the South, they should be so negligent of the

Brazilian slave-trade, the moral enormity of which is so scandalous to Christendom. Why this apparent antagonism of principle? How shall we reconcile this parody on honesty with honesty itself? There is a singular harmony in the mechanism of this social combination with the movements of like social combinations in England. "When Richelieu took snuff," said Walpole, "there was a time when Mazarin would sneeze;" apparently it is so between the abolition sympathizers on both sides of the great water. Perhaps a glance at the prices current lists of some of the Manchester and Northern mill-owners may throw light on the seeming disinclination of abolitionists to anathematize the slave traffic *outside* the United States. These prices current lists, and the commerce and navigation report issued annually from the Treasury Department at Washington, satisfy us of two things: first, that the mills of Manchester, (England,) and many of the mills in this country, manufacture certain cotton goods peculiarly adapted for the African coast trade; secondly, that, so far as the United States is concerned, many of these goods are shipped to Brazil, where they are not needed for consumption, and do not enter into the legitimate Brazilian foreign or domestic trade. That similar kinds of merchandise are shipped from England to Brazil, and are subsequently re-shipped to Africa, and there exchanged for negroes, who are conveyed to Cuba and to the Brazilian coasts, recent discoveries* attest, if more were wanting than the mere fact that the very kinds of goods *not* wanted in Brazil, and *are* wanted on the West Coast of Africa, are exported to the former place, and not to the latter country. All this would indicate, by liberal rendering, that abolition manufacturers and abolition merchants in England and the United States supply the means (the merchandise) by which the slave traffic is continued, and scores of thousands of negroes are torn from their homes in Africa annually to stock the plantations of Cuba, the Llanas of Brazil, and the cane-fields of the British West India planter—although, instead of having sufficient honesty to acknowledge the crime, by exporting their goods direct to Africa, they cover their iniquity by making Brazil the entrépôt. But the reader must not infer that these traffickers are willing to lose the ultimate, which is the principal, profit of such transactions—we mean the final destination and exchange of the goods—not they. New-England supplies the vessels and the intermediate agents, not only for the mills and factories, the merchants and speculators of the North, but for their brethren in absolutism and philanthropy in Manchester and London, who respectively fill their pockets with the gold coined from the negro's happiness and his blood, while, with pious lips, they pour forth invocations to the God of Justice to sweep desolation over the land which fosters the negro in the South. It is our purpose to make no statement in this paper which we cannot substantiate by reference to living testimony, or to official publications. Senate Document, (marked Executive Doc., No. 6, 31st Cong., 2d Session,) furnishes us with the annexed information:—

---

* See Consul Slocum's dispatches to the State Department, 1842 to 1845.

List of Vessels engaged in the Slave-Trade, which cleared for the Coast of Africa from the Brazilian Territories, for the Years respectively annexed.

Years.	Total No.	No. to each State.		Where belonging.
1845	16	6	to	Massachusetts.
		3	to	New-York.
		1	to	Rhode Island.
		1	to	Maryland.
		1	to	Maine.
		2	to	Pennsylvania.
		2		Unknown.
1846	15	6	to	Massachusetts.
		5	to	New-York.
		1	to	Connecticut.
		1	to	Florida.
		1	to	Maryland.
		1	to	Maine.
1847 to 1850		9-10ths	to	N. Y., Phila., and Boston

Shall we look to these figures and to the prices current lists of our exporting merchants, engaged in the Brazilian trade, for the explanation, which we otherwise seek in vain, why our abolitionists are so exceeding diffident in branding the African slave-trade outside of the United States? Occasionally, indeed, a British peer will rise in Parliament, and "institute an inquiry," to which "Lord So-and-So replies, satisfying his lordship that British vigilance had in no wise relaxed;". or, by way of keeping up a vibratory sympathy between the continents, the question may originally be propounded in anti-slavery convention here; but it cannot be disguised that the abolitionist and woman's rights reformer troubles himself but rarely with the destinies of Africa, which it would be so decidedly against his interest to do. May not this very outcry raised so near at home only be a *ruse* to conceal, with more impenetrable secresy, the rank hypocrisy and deep dishonesty of those who are engaged in the Brazilian African slave-trade?

And how does the cotton-mill magnate of this country, who thus panders to this unhallowed plunder of human liberty, if indeed he is not something more than a mere panderer, treat those in his employ, who by their necessities, and not of choice, are constrained to fabricate West Coast goods? One would be apt to think that his conscience would rest uneasily within him; that, while preaching abolitionism and equality of castes, he would exhibit in his dealings with his employees a practical illustration of his doctrines, *ostensibly*, hypocrite as he is in reality. We might select from the testimony voluntarily offered by the operatives of their treatment; but that would be considered *ex parte*, and favorable to the adverse side. We shall therefore summon the factory owner himself, or, what is equivalent, array before us those witnesses who were (on their affidavits) brought before the Legislature of Pennsylvania by the mill and factory owners of New-England, in 1848, for the purpose of inducing the legislature to reconsider the proposition for limiting a day's labor to twelve hours. The libeller of the Southern institution cannot object to this—the witnesses are selected from among their own choosing.

Eliza R. Hemmingway.—"She is now at work in the Middlesex Mills. Her wages average from $16 to $23 per month, exclusive of board. Complained of the hours of labor being too many, and the time for meals being too limited. In the summer season, the work is commenced at 5 o'clock, A. M., and continued till 7 o'clock, P. M., with half an hour for breakfast, and three-quarters of an hour for dinner. But half an hour is allowed for dinner during eight months of the year. The air of the room she considered unwholesome. There were 293 small lamps and 61 large lamps lighted in the room in which she worked. About 130 females, 11 men, and 12 children worked in this room with her. Thinks there is no day when there are less than six of the females out of the mill from sickness."

So we should think, but she does not mention how many are annually borne to the grave. Fourteen hours a day, with no time for rest, or the digestion of their food; intent year in and year out on their duties, fabricating merchandise for the purchase of negroes on the shores of Africa, as well as for the teas of China—fragile girls, undeveloped in their womanhood—yes, we should regard it as a miracle if there were less than six sick daily, cooped up in an atmosphere so deadly as this is described, where, like the fires of Vulcan, the lamps of toil constantly burn.

Miss Sarah G. Bagley.—"Worked three years in the mills before her health began to fail. Thinks the health of the operatives is not so good as the health of females who do housework or millinery business. The chief evil, so far as health is concerned, is the shortness of time allowed for meals; the next evil is the length of time employed, not giving them time to cultivate their minds."

Where is the slave in the South that would exchange his condition for slavery such as this—repudiate his liberty in the plantation, where the winds of heaven may blow upon him, where he may enjoy the early morn among the carolling of birds, feel that he is a freeman until long after the sun has mounted towards the zenith, and then rest from his toil, as nature may need repose, throughout the day? We have ventured within these cotton prisons, where in every revolving wheel, and in the atmosphere of the confined rooms, we have had nothing but chapter on chapter of the hypocrisy, and the lust of the miserly economist, and the soulless taskmaster.

Miss Judith Payne.—"Is a weaver, and attends three looms. Has lost one year out of seven by ill health. Drew $14.66 for five weeks' work, *exclusive* of board. She attributes her ill health to the long hours of labor among the operatives."

Miss Olive J. Clark.—"Thinks there is hardly a week in which there is not some one out [of the mills] on account of sickness. Thinks the air is bad, on account of the small particles of cotton which fly about."

We have here introduced the testimony of these young ladies, taken at random from the record; and the gist of it is, that the operatives are compelled to labor from twelve to sixteen hours per day, and receive for their labor about 50 cents per day, exclusive of board; that about one-twentieth are sick all the time, in consequence of the unwholesomeness of the atmosphere in the rooms of the factories; that they cannot obtain sufficient time in which to partake of their meals, or to rest their limbs; and that owing to this inexorable drain upon their time and physical powers, they have not the opportunity to improve their minds. This testimony is a part of what was adduced by the mill-owners. The adverse side furnished facts which were convincing of the existence among the mill-owners of the most stupendous system of manual labor exaction ever before dreamed of. If, therefore, nothing better could be said, by the above-named witnesses, for the factory owner, in mitigation of his offence against humanity, it had better have been withheld altogether; for, as it stands upon the record, it convicts the firebrand propagandists of the North of the rankest hypocrisy, and most unmannerly knavery, that ever was attempted to be palmed off for sanctity and philanthropy upon a generous community. Are the white slaves of the factory undeserving the sympathy of the anti-slavery and woman's rights ismatics of the North? Is the compact between the mill-owner, with his looms, constructed for the fabrication of West Coast goods, the Salem shipbuilder, and the abolitionist, so binding in its character, so secret in its conditions, so abominable in its invention, that it dare not be broken, lest the revelation of its details should cause an indignant public to spurn the authors of it? Or why should there exist this apathy in regard to the white slave of the factory—this indifference to the wrongs of the operative, who tells us in so many words that her condition is almost insupportable; that, entering the mills at eleven, she becomes prematurely old at twenty, or finds a still earlier grave at fifteen? Is the field too limited for the vast work they have in view? *Or*, does there exist a compact, of the complexion we have hinted, by which, while the brawling abolitionist excites the popular prejudice at home, factory-owner, exporting-merchant, shipbuilder, and abolitionist, may go on with more security in the Brazilian slave-trade with Africa?

We do not expect a reply to this question. But mock philanthropists have other appeals to meet, which are not merely conjectural in foundation. We have shown how far abolitionism can go in cruelty; let us examine how far it goes in denying those charities which poverty, and not lunacy, or factory operatives, claim from it. Official publications* show that there arrived in the United States, in 1850, 315,333 emigrants. Of this number, 26,835 arrived in Massachusetts, 43,615 in California, 184,882 in New-York, and 34,080 in New-Orleans, the residue entering the ports of the Union being pretty equally divided. By an examination of the municipal records of New-Orleans, Charleston, Philadelphia, New-York, Baltimore, and Boston, (so far as information can be gleaned from them, bearing on the inquiry,) and from the reports of railroad and canal companies, on emigrant travel, it appears that of the arrivals at the ports of the North, one-tenth remain in the large cities, or settle near the sea; while of the arrivals at the South, one-seventeenth either remain in the large cities, or settle in Texas. Hence, in proportion to population, it is just possible that the Atlantic free States may extend support to ten or twelve per cent. more of foreign pauperism than are the Southern Atlantic or Gulf States called upon to contribute, but the press, in the latter case, does not so frequently and pompously record the fact. Now, with this slight difference in view, we will venture the subjoined table, which shows the number of paupers in each State, the ratio to population, and the figures of the population itself. It is asserted that the slave-wretchedness in the South has no parallel in the North. The Five Points in New-York have been instanced. "Bah!" the abolitionist exclaims. "Do the Five Points represent the condition of the whole section?" Very well. We have here lumped negroes, North and South, with the whites, (a decided advantage to the cause of the "reformer," as the South has few white paupers,) and still the figures show this disparity, that while in the Southern States there is a pauper to only 2,662 persons, every 395th person in the North is dependent on the public bounty. The South does not imitate "popular" philanthropy in this particular. When misfortune or misery has driven the unfortunate out of his senses, he is not chained in a wood-house, and fed on bones, and made to feel the deprivation of warmth, and the want of a decent bed—at least, something better than straw. Such objects are taken care of; and where one out of ten thousand is restored to his right mind in the jails and dens of other sections, one out of twenty is restored by the better treatment he meets with at the South.*

---

* Senate Exec. Doc., No. 16, 31st Congress, 31st Sess.

RETURNS OF THE PAUPERS OF THE UNITED STATES—CENSUS, 1850.

Free States.				Slave States.			
States.	No. Paupers.	Population.	Ratio.	States.	No. Paupers.	Population.	Ratio.
Connecticut,.....	2,237	370,604	1 to 165	Alabama,.........	363	771,654	1 to 2,126
Illinois,..........	797	856,298	1 to 1,085	Arkansas,........	105	209,640	1 to 1,999
Indiana,..........	1,182	988,734	1 to 836	Delaware,........	697	91,535	1 to 135
Iowa,.............	135	192,122	1 to 1,409	Florida,..........	76	87,387	1 to 1,149
Maine,............	5,503	583,088	1 to 106	Georgia,..........	1,036	878,635	1 to 852
Massachusetts,...	15,777	994,271	1 to 63	Kentucky,........	1,126	1,001,496	1 to 888
New-Hampshire,	3,600	317,864	1 to 89	Louisiana,........	423	500,763	1 to 1,183
New-Jersey,.....	2,392	489,333	1 to 202	Maryland,........	4,494	583,035	1 to 129
New-York,.......	59,855	3,090,022	1 to 51	Missouri,.........	260	592,853	1 to 2,295
Ohio,............	2,513	1,977,031	1 to 787	Mississippi,......	2,977	682,043	1 to 229
Pennsylvania,....	11,551	2,311,681	1 to 204	North Carolina,..	1,931	868,903	1 to 448
Rhode Island,....	2,560	147,555	1 to 57	South Carolina,..	1,642	668,469	1 to 407
Wisconsin,......	666	304,296	1 to 463	Tennessee,......	1,005	1,002,625	1 to 1,000
Vermont,........	3,654	313,466	1 to 88	Texas,...........	7	187,403	1 to 26,772
Michigan,........	1,190	395,703	1 to 332	Virginia,.........	4,356	1,421,081	1 to 326
Average,.....................			1 to 395	Average,.....................			1 to 2,662

We tell those who preach the doctrine of human equality in all things, and the parity of all castes, with other isms, that much of this pauperism is due to their egotistical and absurd vagaries. One-third of the negro population think it beneath them to lay hold of labor as it may chance to fall to them; and many will steal, or throw themselves upon the community for support, before they will condescend to mend the streets, or carry the hod. The doctrines of the descanters on "social reform" also breed discontent, and induce many a worthy man to give way to temptations, which lead him first to the grog-shop, and finally perhaps to the gallows or the alms-house. Cannot these propagators of isms find sufficient employment among the pauper establishments of the North, or the schools of poverty and vice not here given, for their superabundant sympathy, and—money? We opine none will deny that the figures show a good opportunity; will *they* think them deserving of attention?

It must be obvious to the reader, that we are not defending the moral right of slavery, instituted as it may be. There are conditions in which it may be an outrage; there are others in which it may prove a mutual blessing and protection to the community and the bondman. Our inquiries are plain, and their import clear. We have desired earnestly to ascertain what it is the abolitionist requires. If it be practical amalgamation, then, we have asked, to what extent shall it be carried? To the extent of availability? That is not insisted on. To the extent of expediency? If our proofs avail, there can arise no contingency wherein an amalgamation of Caucasian and Ethiopian blood would be expedient. Is it unconditional liberation of the slave that is demanded by the more moderate of the fanatical school—barring all reference to the question of amalgamation? But one pure motive could induce any one to make such a demand on the South—a deep and honest sympathy for the negro bondman, whose social condition, by the ample provision of the emancipationist, would be greatly bettered on achieving his freedom. In our investigation, thus far, we have sought in vain for this honesty of purpose—this superabundance of benevolence. On the contrary, the evidence and the fact have convicted the abolitionist and emancipationist of the grossest abuse of pretension, and of cruelties to the negro of Africa, and the factory girl, of which the Southern planter would not be guilty for all the looms of England. Where is the ample provision for the emancipated slave, which abolitionists and their emissaries declare awaits him? It exists nowhere. Nay, after the unfortunate slave has been used as an instrument to advance the interests of those who have more a pecuniary than a benevolent object in view, he is either hustled off to Canada, where the agitators hope he will be forgotten, or is compelled to strive for a livelihood at home, under a mask forced upon him by these disturbers of the public peace, who play upon his fears to secure his silence, and to prevent his voluntary return to his original home. A publication recently appeared in a Canadian paper, stating that many absconded slaves, who had been shipped off by the under-ground railroad managers to the Provinces, after they had been used sufficiently in the United States, would readily return to their masters in the South, if they had the means to do so, or were allowed to return by their hollow-hearted friends, who act the part of jailer in controlling their movements. The Crafts, in England, on whom British philanthropy wasted itself for a period of—three days—have written a letter to America, regretting their exile, and yearning for the land of their birth; but they are not permitted to return by their quasi-friends, and their master does not want them. Some slaves, with firmer minds than others, have refused the piebald alliance after their first insight into the mercenary motives of their abductors, and have boldly returned to the South, and claimed the privilege of resuming their "shackles." These cases are not singular; they occur oftener than the abolition press are disposed to admit; and if they record them at all, it is done with a venom and rancor by no means flattering to those having the management of the under-ground railroad routes.

---

* Vide Census Returns of 1850, article "Insanity."

We shall not impute to the various classes of fanatics of the United States the responsibility of causing such scenes of poverty and human degradation as are met with among the negroes and whites—the practical amalgamationists—of the Five Points in New-York City, the Hole in the Wall in Boston, and Baker-street in Philadelphia. Misery and wretchedness grovelled in these localities before abolitionism had obtained any degree of importance. But when the denizen of a Southern city visits these sinks, and beholds the ravages which want, disease, and prostitution have wrought upon the abject objects which inhabit them—sees creatures of every shade of complexion, male and female, hoary-headed sinners, and children just freed from the mother's arms, revelling indiscriminately in vice, and imploring the charity of the just, and the interference of the Christian—he is constrained to ask whether the general reformer—the abolitionist and woman's rights champion—ever descends into these reeking dens, and endeavors to reclaim the erring, or alleviates the sufferings of the houseless and starving. Since a determined effort has been made to reform the Five Points, and an agent has undertaken the herculean task, several thousand dollars have been subscribed by the humane towards that end. We have deemed it of some importance to ascertain what amount has been tendered by the abolitionist-woman's-rights-spiritual-rapper-negro-server-reformer, and here is the list, so far as our information extends:—

"Contributions of 50 leading abolition lecturers, and woman's rights advocates, to the Five Points Mission, during the year 1853, ending November 1,	$0,000 00."

It is a melancholy fact, that although the books of subscription for this laudable enterprise have been open for three years, the whole amount contributed by reform orators, and the ranting fanatics, does not amount to more than $0,000 01.

We might draw our remarks to a close at this point. But before doing so, it is equally incumbent upon us that we should enter the alms-house, the prison, the house of refuge, and the asylums for the indigent and unfortunate. We have done so; and have propounded the question what essential benefit, in a pecuniary sense, the universal reformer has been to them. We have nowhere among them been able to trace his steps, or to find his munificence. True philanthropists do not confine themselves to a single duty, or contemplate a solitary purpose. Their hearts are open to all calls which appeal from a worthy source. Our fanatic revolutionists, however, are never seen within the walls of a prison, a house of refuge, a charitable institution for the indigent or unfortunate, where he may have occasion to unclose his purse-strings, or where his goodness may be wasted without arresting the public attention, and receiving popular applause.

What merit is there in rescuing a convict from the gallows, a child from the paths of infamy? What are the claims of the shipwrecked sailor, the veteran of past wars, the misfortunes of the worthy but stricken widow and orphan, to the well-fed, well-clothed, and well-housed negro, for whose benefit there is levied a systematic espionage by those who are too lazy to labor for their bread, and too careful of their liberty to venture on a crusade of dishonesty other than that which the laws cannot punish, and which their atheism and infidelity fortify them to commit in defiance of all moral law?

We have reserved for this, the concluding portion of our remarks, another phase of abolitionism, as it manifests its sympathy for the negro, not the white, slave of the North. It may not strike the casual reader that chattel servitude really exists in the Northern States—that there are relations between the white and the black as binding and absolute as are the relations between master and slave in the South. We are not asserting that slavery, as an institution, is either recognized or perpetuated by statutory laws among the States north of Delaware; but that it exists, and is therefore the more reprehensible and infamous, the records amply prove. By the census of 1840, there were still held in servitude in the North slaves among the following States:—

New-Hampshire	1	Pennsylvania	64
Connecticut	17	Ohio	3
Rhode Island	5	Wisconsin	11
New-York	4	Indiana	3
New-Jersey	974	Illinois	331
Total			1,413

This is the official report of the census; but it was boldly asserted a few years since in the United States Senate, by Mr. Lewis, of Alabama, that less than half the truth appeared with respect to the slave statistics of the North; that (either of his own cognizance, or by assurances which left him no reason to doubt) more than three thousand slaves were actually held to servitude in the free States, notwithstanding the census figures reduced the number to 1,413. But we will assume, and thereby avoid cavil, the latter number. The emancipation laws of the Northern States, unless our figures are much at fault, would leave two-thirds of this number of human beings still in bondage in the year 1847. The Free Soil sentiment had become rampant in 1844. Demagogues proclaimed it as a political issue in 1845; and politicians had fairly launched out on the sea of abolitionism in 1846. Now was the time for these philanthropists to come forward, and show, by purchasing the freedom of their negro brethren still held to servitude, the honesty of their intentions, and the integrity of their principles. But they did nothing of the kind. They did not plead in extenuation or excuse, that the master of the North was more lenient than he of the South—that the humanity of one was superior to the humanity of the other—that the condition of the Northern slave was a whit better than the condition of the chattel of Louisiana or of Georgia. Not they; for such declarations would have met with a decided negative —a positive and overwhelming denial from the mouths of their own apologists: but they did better for their cause—they raised such a clamor against the South, that the enormity of the crime, and the extent of their hypocrisy, at home, were entirely overlooked. This was well understood. It was a scheme that succeeded, because it had been concocted with adroitness, and by men whose historic renown for strategy can only be measured by the turpitude which their seemingly patriotic deeds concealed. Some still live—the grave has closed on others.

As slavery is painted in such hideous colors, why were not these 1,413 bondmen purchased from their masters, and given up to freedom? Why were they permitted to groan in servitude, while so much ranting sympathy for the slave of the South was expended in the North? "I care not," exclaims Lloyd Garrison, "if the slave have all the comforts which the hand of kindness can bestow upon him; while he wears his chains he is a slave still, and as powerfully enlists my sympathy." Here was an opportunity to exhibit this overflowing benevolence at home; 1,413 slaves raised their shackles in appeal to him, and he saw them not, neither were their prayers or invocations heard.

Let us pass on. The census of 1850 appeared in published form in due time. Running our eye over its pages, it rests upon three ominous figures. Here they are:—

Number of slaves in New-Jersey	222

It is true, the emancipation act of the State cheers the slave with the hope of *ultimate* freedom. But has he not worn his shackles unpitied for seven long years—seven years after abolitionism proclaimed a national sentiment, and aspired to control the destinies of the Republic? How does the abolitionist reconcile this inconsistency with his professions? What arguments can he adduce to combat the opinion that his blindness is wilful, and his indifference an unsparing confirmation of his offence?

Art. V.—THE RUSSO-TURKISH QUESTION.

[The paper which follows will be found to embrace material of great interest in relation to the Turkish question, which is now disturbing so much the diplomacies of Europe, and which may in the event have influence enough to be felt upon our side of the water. It will constitute a very proper supplement to the article upon Turkey, which appeared in our last number, from the pen of a contributor. We copy it from a late issue of "Fraser's Magazine," which has but a small American circulation, and in this depart from our Editorial usage.—Ed.]

When Shakspeare made his Henry V. ask the affianced Katherine of France, with somewhat more freedom than we are used to in these days, whether the issue of their union "between St. Denis and St. George, half French, half English," should not be "a boy that would go to Constantinople and take the Turk by the beard," he little dreamed how closely, two centuries and a half after, the spirit of his prediction would be realized. The two nations, indeed, whose patron saints were by their concert to fill the world with their deeds, are now joined by far stronger bonds than the matrimonial affinities of princes, ever failing in the hour of danger. Nor does the voice of justice or of policy call upon them to bid defiance to the ancient enemy of Christendom in the East. A sense of public duty, common interests, and a clear perception of the coming storm, dangerous to all alike, yet not equally foreseen by all, have bound them as one nation, to brave and suffer, or triumph together. The Power that under the mask of sympathy with its co-religionists aims at a dominion that would enable it to vanquish and enslave half Christendom, is scarcely less to be called its enemy than was formerly the Grand Turk himself. The standards of "St. Denis and St. George" may ere long lead to "beard" the great Northern foe, men "in arms not worse," and in a cause ten times more just, than those who fought and bled at Agincourt.

While men's minds are thus fixed on the ancient seats of heathen and Christian civilization in the East, but now for centuries past of Mohammedan conquest and usurpation, the great tideway of mankind continues to set in the opposite direction, westward and southward. The American shore of the Pacific is becoming inhabited by an active, enterprising, and apparently indomitable race. The same great ocean seems destined to be further bounded on the South by a branch of the same division of mankind, whose vocation appears to be to carry liberty of thought and action wherever they tread, and to bind the world by their commerce. This stupendous event, the emigration by thousands, and hundreds of thousands, from

Central and Western Europe to the continents of the new world, with the entire change it can hardly fail ultimately to induce on the face of Eastern Asia, must by no means be left out of sight when reflecting on the whole bearings of our present subject. China is already revolutionized, and bids fair to be thrown open to the world in these latter days. Gibbon has traced with as much distinctness as the nature of the case will admit, the first attacks by the Huns upon the Chinese Empire—its conquest, and the absorption of the victors into its already enormous population—the ultimate defeat of its northern enemies, and the breaking up of the Hunnish monarchy, which had existed in Central Asia for thirteen hundred years; the migration of tribes, too independent for the yoke, westward; the continuance of this migration for centuries, tribe after tribe being impelled in that direction, by the repeated action, probably, of the same force which first drove them from their native seats; and their final stand on the north-eastern boundaries of the Roman Empire, until, in the age of degeneracy which ensued, they crossed its borders, and overspread its plains and cities like a flood. A future historian and plilosopher may perhaps see, in the pressure of the European populations westward, in our past conquest, and we will hope, now commencing civilization of India, in the occupation, by the Anglo-Saxon race, of California, and the Western coast of America; in the probable opening of Japan to the rest of the world; in the rising fortunes of Australia; in the Chinese Revolution; and in many other secret causes at work in that quarter of the globe, but as yet hidden from our view—may see in these a bearing on the great Eastern question, (not, perhaps, that particular phase of it which is now before us, but) the general question between Christian Power on the one hand, and the Mohammedan on the other, not less true because seemingly remote, and scarcely observed in the glare of facts more near and tangible.

CONSTANTINOPLE, the keystone of the arch that binds the European and Asiatic families of mankind, the natural centre of their moral and intellectual movement, their progress and their commerce; occupying a position which, for the incomparable excellence of its harbor, wherein the fleets of the world could ride with their leviathans and three-deckers alongside its quays; for its station midway between the two seas, which unite in bringing to its shores the produce and riches of the east and west; and for the luxurious beauties with which nature has surrounded it, stands unrivalled in the world; this "Empire of a City" has long been the object of envy and of jealousy to the great conquerors and autocrats of our race. As eloquently described in an ancient letter: "Est in Europâ; habet in conspectu Asiam, Ægyptum, Africamque à dextrâ;

quæ tamesti contiguæ non sunt, maris tamen navigandique commoditate *veluti junguntur*." Founded originally by a little colony of Greeks, that keen and active race that has stamped the impress of its genius on all subsequent ages of mankind; the Roma Nova of Constantine; the great Patriarchate of eastern Christendom; the single stay for a thousand years of a falling empire; lastly, the centre of Ottoman might in its meridian and in its setting, it still promises to be the witness of the great struggles of our species for conquest or for existence, of its glories and of its weaknesses. For not only has this wonderful city raised up empires; it has also, by its extreme facilities for luxury and depravity, undermined and cast them down. The latter days of the ancient Greek Empire were perhaps unrivalled for the effeminacy and base servility of its inhabitants. When the Emperor Palæologus, a prince worthy of a nobler people, endeavored to muster the semblance of a force to repel the last furious assault of the Ottoman, Phranza, his faithful counsellor, mournfully reported that out of a population of one hundred thousand, not more than five thousand "*Romans*" could be found to give battle for their country, their wives and their children; and our great historian indignantly declaims against "men devoid of that spirit which even women have sometimes exerted for the common safety." Four hundred years of subjection may have wrought a change in the Greek mind, or certain theorists would hardly venture to propose a reconstitution of the Eastern Empire. But, however this be, the extraordinary influence of Constantinople alone on the rise and fall of already two empires, can hardly be overrated. Perhaps no higher testimony to its importanae can be found than the secret article in the Treaty of Tilsit, by which Napoleon consented "to make common cause with Russia against the Ottoman Porte," in the event of the latter not accepting the Czar's conditions; "and," it proceeds, "the two high contracting parties will unite their efforts to wrest from the vexatious and oppressive government of the Turks all its provinces in Europe,—*Roumelia and Constantinople alone excepted*."[*] The jealousies of the potentates were to preserve to the Turks their city. "I lay no stress," said Napoleon to the Russian Emperor, about the same time, "on the evacuation of Wallachia and Moldavia by your troops: you may protect them if you desire. It is impossible to endure any longer the presence of the Turks in Europe; you are at liberty to chase them into Asia; but observe only, I rely upon it that *Constantinople is not to fall into the hands of any European Power*."[†] O'Meara also relates the following remarkable saying of Napoleon at St. Helena:

Bignon VI., 339–340. Alison's *History of Europe:*

[†] *Hardenburg*, ix., 432. See on this whole subject Alison's *Europe*, chapter xlvi., 78, 81, and Notes.

> All the Emperor Alexander's thoughts are directed to the conquest of Turkey. We have had many discussions about it, and at first I was pleased with his proposals, because I thought it would benefit the world to drive those brutes, the Turks, out of Europe. But when I reflected upon the consequences of this step, and saw what a tremendous weight of power it would give to Russia, on account of the number of Greeks in the Turkish dominions who would naturally join the Russians, I refused to consent to it. especially as Alexander wanted to get *Constantinople, which I would not allow, as it would have destroyed the equilibrium of power in Europe.* I reflected that France would gain Egypt, Syria, and the Islands, which would have been nothing in comparison with what Russia would have obtained.*

Nor does the country of which we are speaking fall short of its great metropolis. Gifted with a climate and a soil to be envied by less favored peoples, this "land of the cedar and vine," with the luxuriance of almost tropical vegetation, would, in the hands of European cultivators, and under the security of European laws, with the aid of proper means of transport, become probably the richest in the world. But, alas! without roads, almost without laws, under the oppression of the worst form of tyranny,—that based on religious supremacy,—this garden of nature has become comparatively a wilderness. Yet many improvements have been made of late years, and are still being made, and we must hesitate before passing a sweeping condemnation on the Turk. We ourselves occupy a somewhat similar position in Asia to his in Europe. A few hundred thousand of our countrymen there laud it over a hundred and fifty million Hindoos. We cannot yet, however, point to the improved state of the interior of India, to its facilities of transport and of communication, to its canals, to its rivers made navigable, trunk and branch roads reticulated over its varied surface, and conveying its apparently boundless treasures to the general mart of the world; to the less frequent visitations of scarcity or famine; to the general well-being of its inhabitants, nor even to the uncorrupt administration of its law. The honorable Company, however, professes to be the landlord of India: the Turk acknowledges only a permanent encampment in Europe. The contrast, indeed, becomes less flattering to us, the further it is carried. We profess a religion that has for its object the improvement and (finite) perfection of the human heart. Yet we cannot be said, as a nation, to have made even an approach to the moral amelioration of the subject race. The Turk, on the contrary, believes in the sword of the Prophet, and faithfully conforms in general, like the Rechabites of old, to the external precepts laid down for his conduct. Accordingly, what virtues the Koran really enforces are actually practised by the Faithful. Mr. Fellowes, who lived among them for several months in Asia Minor, has warmly described their unswerving truthfulness, their honesty, kindness, and hospitality; and, what is unhappily more than we in this favored land can boast of, *their mercy to their animals*, instruments of punishment for beasts of burden being hardly known among them—an instance of tender-heartedness in their character, that would seem to suit them for a truer and purer faith. The Greeks were in the habit of "*excusing*" the possession of these fine qualities in their former tyrants by such sayings as: "The Mohammedan dares not steal, his religion forbids it; he is not allowed by his religion to tell a lie," etc., etc. The same traveller gives them also just praise for their temperance, to which he ascribes in great measure their freedom from disease, and denies their addiction to opium in any such immoderate degree as that with which they have been charged. In their manners they carry with them the true Oriental gracefulness and ease. Nature, indeed, seems to have given the Children of the Sun in the East a grace to which the offspring of Japhet are strangers, and the Turks are admitted to a full share in the gift. "Their refinement," in short, is of the manners and affections, while, however, there is little cultivation or activity of mind among them. To this sterility, compared with the growth of activity and intelligence to the north and west of their country, they probably in great measure owe their decline.

---

* The designs of Russia upon Constantinople are of ancient date. So early as the eleventh century, there was a prediction that the Northern nations would one day possess that city, and an inscription to that effect is related by the Russian historian, Karamsin, to have been found one morning written on the pedestal of one of the principal statues. The *idea* has always haunted the Russian people. and even the Turks themselves, some of whom go so far as to show the gate by which the Muscovite battalions are to enter. When our Queen Elizabeth first sent an ambassador to the Porte, the Czar Boris affected to be sorely scandalized, and directed his ambassador not only to pretend disbelief of the report, but to propose a religious crusade against the infidels. Elizabeth evaded the question, called the Czar her well-beloved brother, who had long been the protector of the English, and said that "she daily prayed heaven for him!"—*Karamsin.*

We do not propose to rake up the apparently interminable question of the last eight months. Every phase of it, so far as foreign ministers have divulged their sentiments to the world, or events have disclosed them, whether in harmony with or contradiction to their ostensible professions, has already afflicted the public mind with a weariness only equalled by its disgust. The satisfaction freely given on the question of the holy shrines; the consequent abandonment of that question, as concluded; the subsequent ground taken again upon it, in Count Nesselrode's circular, as though *not* concluded; the sudden transition to a new claim, unheard of in the annals of independent nations, that the chief of one powerful State should exercise a spiritual protectorate over twelve millions of native subjects of another, and that a weaker State; the secresy which was insisted upon in the negotiations and the oft-repeated menaces with which each claim was accompanied; the second Russian circular, founding the order for the occupation of the Principalities upon the advance of the allied fleets to Besika Bay, a statement chronologically false; the eager acceptance of a note, which could be construed into containing the very terms originally demanded; —all this has shown an amount of sharp practice, which, in every-day life, would be called by a name we had rather should be understood than expressed. The public mind of England has sufficiently declared itself upon each point, as it arose, and, so far as resistance to aggression and positive reprobation of injustice and duplicity are concerned, it is as that of one man. The questions which have arisen amongst us are rather questions of time and degree, and means, than of the principle involved. Some of these are also colored, more or less, with party politics, an inevitable result in this country, where even a momentary influence, by whatever means to be obtained, is too often an object of ambition. Witness the supercilious indifference with which some of Wellington's greatest victories were treated, by the party then in opposition; and, at the commencement of his wonderful Peninsular career, the contempt poured on his measures, by the representatives rather of ignorance and faction, than of English cities and counties. We recall this, not in derogation of a constitutional system, in which, perhaps, such offences must needs come, but to prepare ourselves and others for the phenomena, should they occur, of party politicians making use of a necessary and just, though severe and grievous war, to suit their own purposes, and weaken the hands of government at the moment when it requires the combined aid of every mind and every arm to sustain its efforts. But, we repeat, in the present instance there has been but one opinion, one voice, on the question of rights and justice against violence and wrong. The same pervading feeling will, doubtless, last out the present day, and display England to the world as a power essentially, indeed, of peace, but of instant readiness to resist the very strongest in their career of aggression, if needs be.

Russian ambition has, for years past, followed up a gradual career of conquest. It has been well observed that the great Northern Empire has gained even more by its diplomacy than by its victories, so glad have been its enemies to conclude peace, even when partially successful, on the best terms they could obtain, so little was to be gained and so much to be lost. The author of *Progress of Russia in the East* has given us a vivid picture of this rapid advance towards universal dominion:—

> The acquisitions which Russia has made, within the last sixty-four years, are equal, in extent and importance, to the whole empire she had in Europe before that time; the acquisitions she has made from Sweden are greater than what remains of that ancient kingdom; her acquisitions from Poland

> are as large as the whole Austrian Empire; the territory she has wrested from Turkey in Europe is equal to the dominions of Prussia, exclusive of her Rhenish provinces; and her acquisitions from Turkey in Asia are equal, in extent, to all the smaller States of Germany, the Rhenish provinces of Prussia, Belgium, and Holland, taken together; the country she has conquered from Persia is about the size of England; and her acquisitions in Tartary have an area equal to Turkey in Europe, Greece, Italy, and Spain. In sixty-four years she has advanced her frontier eight hundred and fifty miles towards Vienna, Berlin, Dresden, Munich, and Paris; she has approached four hundred and fifty miles nearer to Constantinople; she has possessed herself of the capital of Poland, and has advanced to within a few miles of the capital of Sweden, from which, when Peter the First mounted the throne, her frontier was distant three hundred miles. Since that time she has stretched herself forward, about one thousand miles towards India, and the same distance towards the capital of Persia.

Such has been the apparently irresistible march of this gigantic power. If we inquire into the causes of this great phenomenon of the last and present centuries, we are equally struck with their simplicity and their grandeur. For centuries there had been a constant immigration of warlike tribes from Northern and Central Asia. Between the Tartars and the Poles, Russia's early history shows one continued period of suffering and subjugation. At length arose a deliverer in the person of Peter the Great, whose task was to bind up the disjointed framework of his State into the compactness of a well-regulated empire. From that moment the star of Russia has been in the ascendant. This was all that was wanting to make a people of intense religious feeling, inhabiting a country almost unassailable by regular armies, absolutely obedient to their nobles, inured to hardship and privation, and possessing a boundless territory, the most formidable nation, perhaps, that the world has yet seen. The means whereby Russia has effected her conquests, and the line of policy she has pursued, show a remarkable similarity in some respects to that followed by Ancient Rome, while in others they evince a tact and an astuteness peculiarly her own. The former case has been admirably treated by Professor Creasy, who remarks on

> —the State craft of the Roman Senate, which took care in every foreign war to appear in the character of a *Protector*. Thus Rome *protected* the Ætolians and the Greek cities against Macedon; she *protected* Bithynia and other small Asiatic States against the Syrian kings; she protected Numidia against Carthage, and in numerous other instances assumed the same specious character. But "woe to the people, whose liberty depends on the continued forbearance of an over-mighty protector."* Every State which Rome protected was ultimately subjugated and absorbed by her. And Russia has been the protector of Poland, the protector of the Crimea, the protector of Georgia, Immeritia, Mingrelia, the Tcherkessian and Caucasian tribes, &c. She has first protected and then appropriated them all. She protects Mol-

---

* Malkin's *History of Greece*.

> davia and Wallachia. A few years ago she became the protector of Turkey from Mehemet Ali, and since the summer of 1849, she has made herself the protector of Austria.*

And we may now add, a well-meant attempt to become the protector of twelve millions, or four-fifths of the Sultan's subjects in Europe.

We have said, however, that this great power, while following the example of the former conquerors of the world, has improved on its teachers by a policy peculiarly its own. It will be remembered that the Russian forces entered the Principalities of the Danube, "*not to make war*," but to obtain a "material guarantee" for the cession of the autocrat's demands. Let us hear now the testimony of the Russian historian, Karamsin, who has shown this very feature to be a leading characteristic of the imperial diplomacy :—

> The object and character of our foreign policy (he observes) have ever been to make conquests without war, and to secure them at each peace, to maintain a defensive attitude, to place no trust in those whose interests do not tally with our own, and never to lose an occasion of doing them an injury, without, however, involving ourselves in the former state of war. (*Sans pour cela nous mettre formellement en guerre avec eux.*)†

Really one would think that this too candid author had been writing the history of the past year.

Bearing steadily in mind this distinctive policy of the Northern Empire, it will assist our obtaining a clear view of the present question, as between Russia and Europe, as well as between Russia and Turkey, to consider her actual military and geographical position relatively to the various nations on her frontier.

The first great fact that meets us in this inquiry is, that the most advanced military position of Russia in Europe,—that of Poland,—threatens both Berlin and Vienna at once, at a distance of not more than 180 miles from either, or nearer than York is to London. It is impossible to over-estimate the importance of this fact, not only in its military consequences, in case of war, but in the political influence it must secure to this Power at all times. Accordingly, we have seen Russia step in as the armed arbiter between the Austrian Emperor and his Hungarian rebels; and when lately Prussia and Austria seemed intent on effecting their mutual destruction, it was the same great Power that employed its friendly mediation, backed by the presence of 100,000 disposable troops in Poland. It is not, indeed, probable that a German politician would admit this state of friendly dependence, but we imagine it would be difficult for him to define the exact limit of *in*dependence of which his country actually feels itself in possession, with respect to its great Northern neighbor. Were Germany a nation united under one head, it would have nothing to fear, or rather, perhaps, it would be itself too much to be feared. But, as Germany now is, with many of its princes unmistakably espousing the Russian cause, and more or less connected with the Russian court, and its people in an unsettled state, with no definite idea to work upon, with Prussia and Austria resuscitating from time to time their ancient rivalry—last, but not least, with a crowd of exiles that wait but the first shot fired in the general struggle to recommence their dangerous game, it is clear that neutrality, a very passive, though, perhaps, talking neutrality, is all that can be expected. And all this is the direct consequence of that act, so infamous in the annals of those nations, which blotted out the name of Poland from the map of Europe. Were this ancient military monarchy reconstituted, even at this late hour, a barrier would be raised to Russian ambition which might throw back for centuries her schemes of conquest. This is not the place to discuss the practicability, or even possibility, of any such scheme. It may, or it may not, be politic, humane, righteous. But this seems certain, that it, and it alone, could re-establish the perfect independence of Prussia and Austria, and, with them, of every minor German State. Truly, the past history of Poland would give no promise of the possibility of the existence of such a nation in this century, whose normal condition was anarchy, and its great internal acts but deeds of blood. Still, the fact remains, and the two principal nations of Germany have only themselves to thank for the presence of such unwelcome neighbors within a fortnight's march of each of their capitals.

---

* *Decisive Battles of the World*, ii. p. 220.

† Quoted by General Count Bjornstierna in his *Tableau Politique et Statistique de l'Empire Britannique dans l'Inde*. The reference is not given, nor have we succeeded in finding the passage in Karamsin's works; but the high character of the Swedish statesman is a sufficient voucher for its authenticity.

The Russian Empire presses on the whole Northern and Eastern boundary of the Austrian dominions until the Danubian principality of Moldavia interposes, and its frontier thenceforward follows the line of the Pruth to the Euxine. With the further possession, whether virtual or actual, of Moldavia and Wallachia, Russia would encompass, on three sides at least, the provinces of Gallicia (the Austrian share of Poland), Hungary, and Transylvania, and the Danube would be thenceforth a Russian river. However absurd it may sound, Austria's most important domains are at this moment in peril of being surrounded. Their final capture may well be reserved to the future convenience of the victor. To so great an extent is this an Austrian question, and such chains, nevertheless, has the Czar coiled round the neck of that ancient empress of nations, that she dares not act, and must be content with talking, and with watching the preparations for her own turn, most surely to come, with the giant of the North.

The position of Russia with respect to Turkey is still more threatening. Occupying the northern coast of the Black Sea, with the superbly fortified harbor of Sebastopol as a base for her naval operations, and with only such wretched sailors to oppose as the Turks in late years have proved, she would have the entire command, but for any foreign aid the latter might receive, of that important sea, including the mouths of the Danube, with the enormous commerce that floats down its stream to supply the markets of the world. Sebastopol is but 350 miles (about) from Constantinople, and a strong force kept constantly in readiness to embark at the former place would effectually menace the latter, and at the same time threaten the flank and rear of any Turkish force occupying the range of the Balkan. The northerly winds which generally prevail, and the currents which set constantly towards the great outlet at Constantinople, must always be an important aid to this fleet. There is no question but the issue of a war between Russia and Turkey would be very much influenced, if not altogether decided, in favor of the power which should obtain the permanent command of the Black Sea. *With* this command, a Russian fleet of ships of war, steamers, and transports, would accompany the left flank of their army, assist in the capture of the maritime fortresses, convey provisions, stores, and ammunition, and constantly press upon; if not altogether turn the right flank of the Turkish force. On the other hand, should the Turks or their allies be triumphant on this sea, the communications of a Russian force in Wallachia or Bulgaria would be in continual peril, the Turkish coast line with its fortresses would be secured; these, with the aid of the position of Schumla (of which more hereafter), would engage the enemy to attack by his right, probably by Tirnova or Sophia, and a serious repulse in this attack, with his long, circuitous, and exposed communications with Southern Russia, might eventually endanger the loss of his army.

These remarks will be hereafter illustrated by a reference to the campaigns of 1828–9. But in respect to the importance of holding the command of the Black Sea, it is hardly too much to say that it is here that Russian aggression may receive its greatest check, and that not improbably another Actium may decide in the Euxine the fate of the world.

The command of the Black Sea must also exercise an important influence on the military operations in Asia. From the natural difficulties and the want of good communications in the country, on its western and southern coasts, it becomes a material object on both sides to transport their reinforcements and supplies by water. Whichever power, then, can secure this advantage to the detriment of the other, will have mastered one of the principal difficulties attendant on warfare in these parts, and will be so far in a superior position to his adversary. There can be little doubt, however, that the Russian navy will always be more than a match for the Turkish; and that should the latter be ever left to cope single-handed with their formidable adversary, this one consideration of the Russians obtaining a free range of the Euxine, while the Turks are cooped up in their harbors, will be sufficient of itself to give the former an overwhelming superiority in the general campaign. The position of Sebastopol in the Crimea is admirably calculated to secure these advantages.

Such being the general position taken up on the northern coast of this inland sea, it remains to consider the pressure of the Russian Power on the northern provinces of Turkey in Europe. The Principalities of the Danube, which separate Turkey proper, as it may be called, from Russian Bessarabia, are, it is well known, under the joint protection of the two Powers, but paying a tribute to the Sultan. The ruling influence, however, in these provinces, is of course unmistakable. There can be no question of the vast importance of their possession to the great Northern Empire, giving it the entire command of the Danube, reducing Austria to a state of almost absolute dependence, and only awaiting the course of events to complete the march already begun on Constantinople itself. We find, accordingly, that it was one of the first objects of anxiety to Alexander, in his conferences at Tilsit, to obtain the consent of the French Emperor for their annexation to Russia. This was in due time followed by an Ukase (January 21, 1810), formerly annexing these Provinces, and decreeing the Danube to be the southern boundary of the Empire, from the Austrian territory to the sea. It is true that in the treaty of Bucharest (May 28, 1812), which concluded that war, they were restored to their former owners; the formidable attack by Napoleon on the heart of the Empire rendered it desirable to procure peace, even at the price of retractation; but the fact of the annexation remains in strong evidence of the real designs of Alexander, which we may very safely conclude are being steadily followed up by his successor. Indeed, one of the principal acts in the reign of the present Emperor has been the procuring the nominal independence of these provinces; and in consequence, by a somewhat novel figure of speech, Russia could seize upon them as a "material guarantee" for the cession of her demands, without, at the same time, making war upon Turkey.

The Wallachians and Moldavians are interesting, as the descendants of the Roman colonists whom Trajan planted among the ancient Daci, as a barrier against the barbarians of the North. The hope was vain, and these unhappy provinces have been the prey to successive invaders from those distant ages to the present time. It cannot be said that the hope of the future is to them more promising than the history of the past is miserable. Perhaps their only chance of repose would be to fall under the domination of one of the Great Empires which they adjoin. Could this be Austria, the danger to the Ottoman Empire and to Europe might not be very considerable, while it would effectually separate the two belligerents. A proposition by Talleyrand to that effect is on record. But Russia could never permit such a Power to stand between her and her victim; the prevalent Greek religion is another insuperable bar; and lastly, the Turk himself would fight, as he is now doing, for the small amount of sovereignty that is still left to him in those parts. But the climate is mild, the soil wonderfully fertile, and under a good government, and with years of peace, these provinces would probably be unsurpassed in Europe for wealth and prosperity. At present they bear only the marks of the hard lot to which their position between Europe and its Asiatic invaders has for centuries past reduced them; ill cultivated, half peopled, half civilized, with few towns, and scarcely anything that can be called a road. The description of the country by an eye-witness, one who served in the Russian war of 1810 against the Turks, may be interesting, as well for the circumstance that its condition must always modify, to an important degree, the Russo-Turkish question, as that it is at this moment the seat of war. We may add, that from all accounts there appears but little difference between its present state and that described in the following extract:—

> Taking the course of a traveller setting out from Hermanstadt, we cross the lofty mountain-regions of Transylvania by the pass of Rothenthurn, descend on the River Argisch, near the small town and convent of that name, and scale the vine-clad spur of the range, from whence are viewed the fields and plains of Wallachia. Rivers and streams in great numbers precipitate themselves from the mountains into the Danube, all of them impetuous in their course, fordable in dry weather, but overflowing at every fall of rain. The communications, which are only kept up by ferry-boats and bad bridges, are frequently interrupted, and the rich soil renders the roads impracticable in wet weather. The entire plain, covered with oak brushwood, becomes in winter the haunt of great numbers of wolves from the mountains. Anciently the country was covered with forests, which, however, the inhabitants have cut down for firewood, and turned the land into pasture for their cattle, their principal means of subsistence. In Moldavia and Bessarabia the inhabitants have followed a similar industrial employment; but the soil is in many respects different from that of Wallachia. In these the streams, issuing from the lower levels of Padolia and Bukowina, flow in a more even course to the Danube, and form extensive marshes. Bessarabia is furrowed with these from north to south; yet notwithstanding,

the country conveys to the eye the appearance of a perfect plain, with nothing but pasture, and not even a solitary bush. The inhabitants, after the fashion of the Tartars, lead a wandering life, and carry their tents from place to place. The Wallachians are also half Nomads, even their villages consisting but of large and partially excavated hovels, and these changed, from time to time, as the flocks change their pasture. In consequence, the only sure indication of a place on the map is when a church or convent may have gathered around it some huts or wooden houses, so as to form a sort of town. More fixed habitations are, however, to be found in Moldavia, probably from its greater proximity to European civilization. Agriculture there is none in these provinces, or scarcely any worth mentioning, except the cultivation of Turkish wheat, of which the inhabitants make their bread; but the abundance of hay produced by their rich meadows, and which, made up into ricks, supplies even the flocks and herds of Transylvania during the winter, more than compensates the deficiency.*

It may seem, at first view, that such a land of desolation is scarcely worth contending for. And, indeed, to Turkey it can be of but little value, further than the tribute it pays, and the honors of sovereignty. To Russia, however, it would constitute a vast accession of power, not only by its own natural riches, which, by means of good communications and proper drainage, she might turn to good account, but in a still greater degree by its political value, as insuring the command, for all practical purposes, of the all-important Danube. We should then hear no more of chokings up, by sand-banks, at the mouth. The great river of Germany would be under the efficient control of Russia, and it would be as much the interest of the latter to promote its commerce as it now is to impede it, in order to turn off the main traffic to Odessa. It is a paramount duty of Austria, and of all Southern Germany, to oppose, by material means if necessary, this threatened encroachment. It would indeed appear from the circular of the Austrian government to its diplomatic agents, that this part of the question has occupied its serious attention, and it is probably in reference to this that the Austrian neutrality is promised only so long as her great State interests are not menaced.

The importance to Austria of maintaining, if not in her own possession, at least in that of a neutral power, the course of this great river to its mouth, is sufficiently obvious. It is probable that this will determine the drift of her policy; and if so, it must be eminently that of present peace, with prudent arrangements for the security of these provinces, based on the general European equilibrium, and guaranteed by all the great Powers. The object would be to obtain a permanent veto by the rest of Europe against their being invaded by any one without the general consent, or only when required by urgent circumstances, which should be well defined. Could such a resolution be adopted, the present great and otherwise unmixed evil which would have led to it, would scarcely be a subject of regret.

---

* Valentini: *Guerres des Russes contre les Turcs.*

So much attention has been given of late to the operations on this great "highway of nations," that we may be pardoned if we dwell a little on its leading characteristics, as materially influencing, not only every war, but even every act in the pacific policy of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

The Austrian Empire, though placed *à cheval* on the Danube, is neither in possession of its source nor of its mouth, yet that river is the main artery of the empire. An invader from the east or the west would strike at the heart of the latter by following the stream as his line of operation; innumerable tributaries still further increase its importance, and nothing seems wanting to secure to Central Europe the benefits Providence has marked for it in the possession of such an outlet for its industry and produce, but the control or occupation of the last part of its course and of its mouth. The Prussian General Valentini, from whom we have already quoted, gives an interesting description of this portion of the river:—

> The Danube, (he observes,) which separates these provinces from Bulgaria, is, at its entrance into the Turkish Empire, a very important river, as well from the size of its islands, as from the rapidity of its current, which renders it difficult to establish bridges of boats, for which also there would be required very large vessels. Silistria and Turtukai, where the stream is not more than a thousand paces broad, are the most advantageous points for these bridges. It would be difficult, however, to protect them against a skilful enemy who should be master of the right bank, seeing the plateau of Bulgaria is more elevated than the provinces of the opposite side, and extends to the very bank of the stream, terminating in a steep slope, from whence there is an entire command of observation over the plains of Wallachia. This bank is composed partly of rocks, partly of a clay standing at the steepness of rock, and intersected by deep ravines. The province, favored as it is by nature, presents alternately uncultivated plains and the most luxuriant vineyards, which in some places extend along the river bank for miles, while their fertility is such that it seems impossible effectually to to lay them waste. The high lands of Bulgaria are not so fortunate. Intersected by deep glens, which in summer are dry, they suffer much from the want of water; and but for a skilfully combined system of conduits, and the formation of artificial pools in the valleys, their population could never be proportionate to their fertility.*

It is now time that we examine more closely the military bearings of the question, and consider the capabilities of Turkey for defence. For this the experience of past wars will be the best guide, and it will be necessary to assume, what has always been the case after the parties have been any time engaged, that the Russians are considerably superior in the numbers, and (always hitherto) in the quality of their troops. Without such assumption, indeed, the inquiry were worthless. We shall also take advantage of the opinions which military officers of distinction have expressed on this branch of the subject, trusting that its great importance at the present time will be an excuse for some little tedium of detail, which under the circumstances is inevitable. To save the constant recurrence of geographical explanation, we will make bold to recommend our readers to have before them any common map of Turkey in which the principal routes are given.

---

* Valentini: *Guerres des Russes contre les Turcs*, p. 41.

The natural features of the country present two grand lines of defence, at distances from one another varying from fifty to one hundred miles, and with an admirable position for a reserve, or for a third line of defence, from one hundred to one hundred and fifty miles of the second line. The first line is that of the Danube, with its fortresses. The second line is the range of the Balkan, from Varna on the coast to the Ikhliman pass on the road between Tartar-Bayarjik and Sophia, including the position of Schumla, and the passes through the mountains. The third position is at Adrianople, on the Maritza, and extends by the Kuchuk Balkan to Kirkliseh. In addition to these, the country adjoining Constantinople is also very strong, and may even be considered as a fourth line of defence.

The length of the first line is about 350 miles, that of the second about 250, and the third nearly 50 miles.

The whole country is excessively unfavorable for military operations, from the difficulties of transport, the endless succession of strong positions, and above all, from the terrible malaria, which to European constitutions is even more destructive than the sword of the Ottoman.

With this general view before us of the theatre of operation, we shall now give a précis of the two attacks by Russia upon Turkish territory which have occurred during the present century, namely, the campaigns of 1809–11, and of 1828–9.

The Russians commenced the campaign of 1809 in the spring, with a nominal force of eighty thousand infantry, and twenty-five thousand horse, including Cossacks. They had already occupied, since 1807, Bucharest and the Danubian Principalities. The Turks, weakened by the sanguinary revolutions of the preceding year, could oppose no force in the field capable of meeting such formidable enemies. They prudently resolved, therefore, to throw strong garrisons into the fortresses on the Danube, and to wait the issue of events at Schumla, and on their second line—that of the Balkan.

Prosorowsky, the Russian general, first attempted Giurgevo, opposite Rustchuk, by escalade. He was repulsed, with the loss of two thousand men. He next tried the same too obvious method against Brahilow, where, after leaving seven thousand killed in the ditches, he was again repulsed. The Turks, emboldened by these successes, ventured across the river at Giurgevo, and commenced ravaging Moldavia. To draw them off, Bagrathion, who now succeeded to the command of the Russian forces, Prosorowsky having died, attempted to besiege Silistria. The siege was shortly turned into a blockade, and ultimately raised altogether, in consequence of a repulse at Tartaritza. The Russians, however, succeeded in forcing Brahilow to capitulate towards the close of November, thus obtaining a fortress which insured the passage of the Danube in the ensuing spring. This was their only success of any importance during the year, and we observe that the whole campaign consisted of mere desultory fighting on different points of the first line of defence—the Danube.

The year 1810 was opened with the formal annexation of the provinces to the Russian Empire, as has been already noticed. To support this audacious measure, the army on the Danube was reinforced to its original complement of 80,000 infantry and 30,000 horse. Kamenskoi was appointed to the command, and his plan of operations was as follows. The right wing was to besiege Silistria and Rustchuk, and thus secure the Lower Danube as a basis, while the remainder of the army were to advance upon Schumla, carry it by storm, and open the road to Constantinople.

The right wing accordingly crossed the Danube, and invested Rustchuk; the left did not commence its operations till two months afterwards. It then besieged and took a few Danubian fortresses, mostly by holding out favorable conditions to their garrisons. Having secured, therefore, the immense advantage of a broad base of operations in the line of fortresses on the Lower Danube, and with no enemy in his immediate front or on his flank, Kamenskoi found his project sufficiently advanced to make his assault on Schumla, the key of the Balkans, towards their eastern extremity, and the pivot of the second great line of defence. To carry this celebrated position, the Russian general took with him forty thousand men.

Schumla, situated on the northern slope of the Balkan, the point of junction of the roads from Rutschuk, Silistria, Ismael, etc., to Constantinople, commanding by its situation no less than three important passes, and with every natural advantage in its favor for the formation of a strong intrenched camp, has, in all the late wars with the Russians, been selected for the principal defensive position of the empire. The town itself is said to contain 30,000 inhabitants.

It is encompassed by a counterfort of the Balkan, in the form of a horseshoe, the steep slopes of which, covered with the thickest thorn-bush, form a position as favorable as the Turkish soldier can desire, who is fond of fighting under the shelter of rising ground or intrenchments. The town, which

is about a league in length, and half a league in breadth, is protected by an earthen rampart and ditch, and in some places by a thick brick wall, flanked by small massive towers, from which five or six men could fire. Such is the nucleus of the intrenched camp, the contour of which is naturally indicated by the crests of the surrounding heights, which are well protected from attack by the ravines that intersect them, and the steepness of the declivities. The camp, by reason of its great extent, could scarcely be blockaded; while the place itself is perfectly secure from bombardment, allows ample space for the magazines of the army, and even contains within its circuit vineyards and gardens, and, above all, a stream of pure water.*

The camp was occupied at this time by 30,000 men, under the Grand Vizier, Kara-Yusuf Pasha, who had signalized himself by his defence of Acre, in conjunction with Sir Sidney Smith, against Napoleon. The Russians appeared before it on the 23d of June. A desultory contest ensued, in which both parties fought with desperation for every eminence and every thicket. The assailants, however, gained but little ground, and on the 12th of July abandoned the enterprise, retiring towards the Danube, and leaving a force, nominally to blockade, but in reality merely to watch the Turkish camp.

The Russian general next endeavored to wipe off this stain by the assault of Rustchuk. Conformably with the usual tactics of the Turks, the garrison had sat still without molesting the assailants in any way during their approaches. An easy victory was expected by the younger soldiers; the older ones were more dubious. The attack was conducted in five massive columns. Two out of the five were admitted, and instantly cut to pieces by the Turkish scimetars; the others were received with such a terrible fire from the ramparts, and roofs of the adjoining houses, that after twelve hours consumed in this hopeless contest, the Russian general yielded to necessity, and drew off his forces, leaving eight thousand killed and wounded on the ramparts, ditch, and glacis.

After this dreadful repulse, the Russians confined themselves to a blockade. A body of 30,000 Turks, consisting for the most part of raw militia, assembled to succor the place, but were attacked, and, after two days of severe fighting, defeated with great loss at Batin; in consequence of which Rustchuk capitulated, but on honoroble terms. The campaign concluded with the siege and capture of Nicopolis, and the retirement of the Russians across the Danube for the winter. Kamenskoi soon after died, and was succeeded by the celebrated Kutusoff, afterwards the antagonist of Napoleon.

This campaign was therefore confined almost entirely to the Danube and the country between that river and the Balkan. An attempt on the latter position signally failed, but on the other hand, every place on the first great front of defence fell into the hands of the enemy. When we consider the relative disparity of forces, in number and in quality, this insignificant result may well surprise us: but we must remember that it is entirely due to the repulse of the attack upon Schumla; and the natural strength of that position, joined to the bravery of its defenders, saved once more the honor, if not the existence of the Ottomans, as it had before done when assaulted by Romanzoff in the middle of the last century.

---

* Valentini.

The campaign of 1811 opened with a great reduction of the Russian forces, in consequence of the menacing state of the relations between St. Petersburg and the Tuileries. Kutusoff found no more than fifty thousand men at his disposal, and the Turks having rallied round their standards to the number of sixty to eighty thousand men, he necessarily stood on the defensive. The very interesting battle of Rustchuk, in which the characteristic qualities of the European infantry and Asiatic horse were so remarkably displayed, was the first occurrence of any note. Though victorious, Kutusoff felt his position to be insecure, with the Danube in his rear, and retired the whole of his forces across the river. The Turks having crossed in pursuit, fortified themselves on the opposite, or Wallachian bank; then followed the extraordinary action, in advance of Giurgevo, in which the Turkish fieldworks covering their bridge were literally surrounded by the Russian redoubts and their whole army shut up within their lines, while a Russian division, having crossed the river unperceived, gained command of the bridges in their rear and of the interior of the camp. A furious cannonade ensued, till the whole surviving Turkish force which had passed the river laid down their arms. Negotiations for peace were entered upon shortly after, and the campaign thus terminated.

Little or no use appears in these campaigns to have been made of the fleets on either side. This is explained, however, so far as the Russians are concerned, by the circumstance, that Varna, the great military post of Turkey, was untaken. An attempt on that fortress was made in the course of the second campaign, which, however, failed. On the other hand, both sides employed a large fleet of gun-boats on the Danube, which seems to be indispensable to operations on that river.

We now come to the Russian campaigns of 1828–9. The destruction of the janizaries, or military feudatories, holding their lands for services liable to be demanded in war, which had occurred three years before, had sapped, for the time at least, the main strength of the Ottoman Empire, by transferring its defence from the arm of the freeman to that of the conscript. The latter was no substitute for the former—the irregular violence of whose blows was but ill compensated by the attempted European discipline under the new system. Accordingly, we may be prepared to expect the most formidable defeat the Turkish Empire had yet sustained. Bad as it was, however, it was by no means easily achieved; and, as we shall presently see, it was accomplished at last far more by a successful stroke of generalship, than by the overwhelming force of the assailants. We do not usually, indeed, hear these campaigns spoken of in this manner; but we imagine it will be evident that such was the case from the following statement. So little is really known of this war, though occurring strictly in our own times, that it may be well to state the authorities we shall generally follow in the account. *The Portfolio*, or collection of State Papers, contains (vol. iii.) a "Précis of a Report on the Russian Campaigns of 1828 and 1829, drawn up, for the information of the Duke of Wellington, by Lieut. Colonel Chesney." The editor of that publication and the gallant and highly scientific officer, of whose report it purports to be a précis, being happily both living, we shall leave any question of authenticity to be settled, if necessary, between them—merely observing, however, that it bears upon its face the stamp of truth, under whatever circumstances it chanced to come into print. We shall rely in some measure also on the history by Valentini, from whom we have already largely quoted, and who, though evincing a strong bias in favor of his former companions in arms, and obtaining his information through Russian channels, shows, nevertheless, a regard for truth that may well qualify him for the first rank of military historians.

The Russians opened the campaign of 1828 with 160,000 men according to some, with only 100,000 according to others, by invading the Danubian Principalities, which they entered on the 8th of May. They are stated to have advanced without any previously arranged commissariat, acting probably on the old Roman, and afterwards Napoleonian maxim, of making war maintain war, and levying contributions on the peasants without payment. As might be expected, a scarcity ensued; fresh supplies were brought in from Russian Bessarabia by forced labor: famine preyed on the population of the country, a murrain consumed the cattle, and the plague broke out with intense energy at Bucharest, carrying off in the two years no less than 12,000 Russian soldiers. While these horrors were being perpetrated in their rear, the Russian army proceeded to the siege and capture of the fortresses in their way. Meanwhile, the Turks had assembled 31,800 infantry, and 13,000 cavalry at Schumla, under "the energetic Hussien Pacha." The Russians moved simultaneously against Varna, Silistria, and Schumla. Of these, however, at the termination of the campaign, on the arrival of winter, they had only succeeded in the capture of

Varna, after a resistance of seventy days to the Russian batteries, and with two bastions demolished by their mines. The garrison did not risk an assault, with which the Turkish defence usually commences, and there appears reason to suppose the gates were partly opened with a golden key. The besiegers were materially assisted by their fleet. At the end of October, the sieges of Silistria and Schumla were raised, and the Russians went into winter quarters. Thousands of men are said to have died of the plague in this campaign, and 30,000 horses were lost.

The winter of 1828–9 was marked by a total inactivity on the part of the Turks, and, as has been hitherto their wont, by great numbers of them returning to their homes. The Russians, taught by the experience of the past year, made the most extensive preparations for the forthcoming campaign—the total inability to proceed without a full supply of provisions and stores laid up in a regular system of magazines, and forwarded to the fighting corps, by established and well-guarded lines of communication, having been fatally demonstrated.*

At the commencement of the second campaign, the Russian army amounted in all to 150,000 men. The Turkish regular force was rather less than in the autumn of 1828. Forty-five thousand Russians proceeded to the siege of Silistria, which had been raised on the approach of winter. The remainder appear to have been placed in various positions menacing Schumla, and preparing for the passage of the Balkan should occasion offer.

Pravadi, a small town situated between Varna and Schumla, and on the road leading from Bazarjik, through Aidos, to Constantinople, was recognized by the Grand Vizier as an important strategical point, which would enable the Russians to turn the position of Schumla, and lay open the plains of Adrianople. Here the Russians had assembled ten thousand men. The Grand Vizier attacked it with thirty-five thousand men; and whilst he was occupied in besieging it, Diebitsch planned and executed the passage of the Balkan.

"General Diebitsch marched from Silistria, desiring Generals Roth and Rudiger to inclose the Turks in the defiles of Pravadi (with the garrison of that place closing them in its rear), until he himself could arrive with his army. Meantime, Ibrahim Pacha, who was left at Schumla, summoned the Grand Vizier to his relief." A battle ensued, in the afternoon of the 11th June, at Kouleftja, in which, after a sanguinary conflict, and hemmed in on all sides, the Turks at length fled. "The Russians had in the battle forty thousand men and one hundred guns."

---

* A curious indication, with many others, of the long matured designs of Russia for an attack upon Turkey, is offered by the fact, well known in the London trade, that the Russian medical department purchased, at the commencement of the present year, four times their usual amount of quinine, the chief medicine for the intermittent fever arising from malaria. It is customary with that government to purchase six months' consumption at a time. The order was this year for an amount equal to two years' consumption. The circumstance occasioned much surprise, until the mystery was solved by recent events.

The garrison of Schumla had, during the battle, made a diversion in the rear of the Russians; but became, as it would appear, panic-struck, to which the Turks are peculiarly liable, retired with haste, and even abandoned the redoubts in front of Schumla. Had General Diebitsch followed up his victory, which, however, he may not have been in a position to do, he must have carried Schumla itself. Two days afterwards, the Grand Vizier regained that encampment with thirty thousand men; having lost in the engagement at Pravadi three thousand, and the Russians very few less.

Silistria surrendered, on the 30th June, for want of ammunition—the Russians having effected two practicable breaches, and prepared five mines. The Turks, having expended their powder, could not risk an assault, or history might have recorded a second Rustchuk.

General Diebitsch then made a feint of attacking Schumla, till the Grand Vizier had recalled his detachments from all the passes. In order further to deceive the Turks, Diebitsch retreated on Jeni-Bazaar, six leagues on the road to Silistria. He then turned suddenly towards Devra and Keuprikioi. In order to pass the Balkan, each soldier was supplied with four days' food, and the wagons brought sufficient for ten days' more. Ten thousand men were left to watch Schumla, and to assault it if the Vizier moved. The Vizier sent instantly ten thousand men to intercept Diebitsch at Keuprikioi; but the Russians had already passed through, and were on their way to Selimnia. The Russians passed the Balkan with only forty thousand men; of whom, in ten days afterwards, ten thousand were in the hospitals. If the Turks had shown front, from place to place, the Russians must have retreated towards the sea for provisions.

Thus the famous Balkans, with the Great Gate of Constantinople, as we may fairly term Schumla, were effectually turned. The fall of Adrianople succeeded, and Turkey appeared for the first time prostrate under its conqueror. It is very doubtful how far this was really the case. The Russians at Adrianople could not bring forty thousand men into the field. Their line of communication was insecure, and their troops were dying off by thousands. "Of six thousand sick at Adrianople, every one died in three months." The total loss of the Russians in the two campaigns is calculated at the frightful number of "one hundred and forty thousand men and fifty thousand horses."*

It is quite clear from the above narrative that the Balkans ought not to have been forced, and that the success of this daring passage of arms was due rather to the skill of the general than to the want of bravery or of ability in the defenders. It was an event which may or may not recur, but with strong chances against the repetition. The forces, moreover, were very unequally matched, and yet the Turks lost but little ground in the first campaign, and, but for their misfortune at Pravadi, would probably have lost but a few fortresses in the second. The Russians again had the entire command of the sea, on which their left flank rested, with Varna as their base, and their fleet was of incalculable service in the siege and capture of Sizepoli, a fortress on the coast commanding the harbor of Bourgas, in the early part of the campaign, which gave them a ready communication with the sea for provisions and ammunition after crossing the Balkan.

---

* It is only proper to observe that the account given in *The Portfolio*, from which the parts above quoted are drawn, appears *essentially Turkish*. We may rely, however, on the *general* facts here stated.

We have in the above accounts gone somewhat into detail, in order to bring before our readers the real state of the matter, as it has been laid open by past wars. We confess, at the same time, to having another and more immediately important object,—to inspire a wholesome confidence in the public mind, not only in the justice of the cause on which this great country has (virtually) embarked, but also in its perfect ability to uphold the same if necessary, by force of arms, as we now hope to show.

Out of the five campaigns above sketched, the Russians gained a decisive success in but one. It by no means appears that they would have gained this but for two circumstances—their command of the sea, which, with the possession of Varna and Sizepoli, insured in some degree their communications and supplies, and, as we have before said, a very successful stroke of generalship. What, then, would have happened had there been forty thousand French and British troops covering Adrianople? What, if British and French fleets had maintained the line of the coast, and prevented any Russian squadrons or transports from accompanying or supplying their troops on the march? It is obvious the thing could not have been attempted at all. It is not, indeed, equally obvious that Varna would not have been captured; but it is not impossible that in Turkish hands, with the assistance of a friendly squadron, that most important place, with respect both to land and sea operations, would have proved a second Acre. Varna, as covering the right flank of the great positions on the Balkan, and as, conjointly with Constantinople, a basis of naval operations against Odessa and Sebastopol, should be defended, it is clear, to the last, in any war of defence undertaken by the western nations on behalf of Turkey.

Adrianople, the second city in the empire, next claims our attention. Placed at the confluence of the Maritza, the Toundja and the Arda; being the point to which the roads from the various passes of the Balkan converge, with exception alone of that from Aidos; possessing water communication with the Levant for vessels of moderate tonnage, by the Maritza and the Gulf of Enos; thus at once covering the approaches on Constantinople and supporting the positions of the Balkan—seems marked out by its position as the last bulwark of the empire. Marshal Marmont, who, in the earlier part of his career, had made Turkey his special study (having been ordered by Napoleon, after the treaty of Tilsit, to send officers into the country on various pretexts, to examine and report upon its military capabilities), and who in the latter part of his life, when an exile, revisited the scene of his former labors, has left us an instructive chapter on the relations of that empire to the various European Powers and on the strategical advantages of Adrianople in particular. The picture, indeed, which he draws is the exact reverse of what is now the case—he presumes the Russians to have entered Turkey, and, with the consent of the Turks, to be holding it against Austria, France and England. After providing for the security of the Dardanelles and of Constantinople, he proposes to place the "remainder of the army, that is to say, forty thousand men at Adrianople, and to form there an intrenched camp, similar to the fortifications around Lintz, consisting of an extended system of towers, and with due advantage taken of the rivers which there flow into the Maritza. Eighteen or twenty towers would render that post unassailable; an army of thirty to forty thousand men could not be shut up within it, while it would hold one of eighty thousand in check, who could not venture to leave it in their rear."* The accomplished author subsequently considers the opposite case, of the western nations becoming the defenders of Turkey, and candidly admits that the brilliant advantages he had depicted as accruing to the Russians from a presumed defensive position taken in Turkey with the consent of the Turks, belong in truth to the first occupant. The sentence which follows is so curiously illustrative of (in part at least) the present situation, that we cannot resist transcribing it *verbatim*, merely premising that the work was published in 1837:—

> En effet, si une flotte française et anglaise, passe le détroit des Dardanelles, et arrive à Constantinople: si en même temps un corps de cinquante mille hommes de l'alliance, autrichien ou français, vient prendre position à Andrinople, et y établir le camp retranché dont j'ai parlé, alors les Russes ont d'immenses difficultés à vaincre pour enlever ces positions à leurs ennemis: dès ce moment leur escadre rentre à Sébastopol, et n'en sort plus, etc. etc.†

Put "British" for "Austrian," in the category of troops which should be opposed, if the worst come to the worst, to Russian aggression, and the picture would seem not unlikely to be realized.

---

* *Voyage du Marechal Duc de Raguse*, ii. 121.

† Ibid. p. 126.

We have purposely abstained from touching on the grave question, "What is to be done with Turkey?" It is, indeed, a question, the responsibilities of which may well make statesmen tremble. But we fail to perceive that the course of Providence has yet put it to us. What we do know is our present plain path of duty. No verbal sophisms, no diplomatic niceties, no risk even to our own beloved land, must keep us from *that*. A nation, like an individual, has an end for which to live. Better to cease to live than give up that end for which it came into being. "Death before dishonor." Right is at this moment invaded by unjust power, and the strong arm of the brave must come, if needs be, to the rescue. A "wilful King" aims at interference with the manifest course of Providential government, to turn its righteous decrees to his own account. He invades under the name of peace. To justify his violênce he pleads facts that never had being, and principles that have no place save in the mind that blinds itself to the real truth of things. Let the wise take warning. What will be the end we know not yet. But our hope is in Him who "giveth not the race to the swift, nor the battle to the strong." And with truth and justice, and that sympathy which was not withheld even from the outcast Samaritan—all these for us, we may surely quote against the northern invader, his own biblical motto for the war, if to war we at last be driven—DOMINE IN TE SPERAVI, NE CONFUNDAR IN ÆTERNUM.

Art. VI.—RISE AND PROGRESS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

No. I.

A RETROSPECTIVE glance at the rise and progress of American commerce and navigation seems to be expected in connection with the statistics of our rise and progress as a nation. The American Revolution occurred at a time when the gigantic energies of European sovereignties had ostensibly attained their utmost vigor, and could well command the empire of the seas, as they had sole dominion of the earth. Trade, foreign and domestic, had endured many changes and fluctuations since the discovery of new routes to the Pacific seas; but it seemed at length to have acquired a permanency of character, equipoising between the Dutch, the French, and the English. The colonies of America, like the colonies of Great Britain in the East and West Indies now, had contributed to the wealth, resources, and material prosperity of the mother country; and even though oppressed by heinous exactions, and contrary to the general destiny of those whose interests the British nation undertakes to promote, incongruous as were the elements of its unity, gave every promise of thriving, and achieving a name of its own. At this juncture, the storm of politics burst forth, rending every tie but that of patriotism; and in a few years, a few months, there floated to the shore, from off of this tempestuous ocean, but the wrecks of those simple but sacred institutions which the colonists for their welfare had reared. Fortunately, if the tide of war, severer in this instance than usually interrupts the career of nations, tore away the frail industrial supports of the embryo confederacy, it left to the people their liberties; and on this rock they undertook to rebuild those edifices of power and utility which their previous trials and triumphs in civil life had made only humbly to resemble. They set about removing the wrecks which had floated by their doors, obstructing the highways to wealth and distinction. While some turned their attention to the plough and anvil, others laid the keels of vessels for ocean navigation, and necessity schooled mariners to steer them. Others, again, entered the factory, or rekindled the fires of the furnace, while a fourth class extended piers, and erected warehouses to accommodate them.

And now was heard the clang of hammers, the hum of commercial strife, and the clatter of the winnowing-mill and flail. From the epoch of the Revolution American industry has its date.

The census returns just published show the extraordinary progress that has been made in our industrial arts, and the success that has attended our endeavors to remove the natural barriers to migration and the spread of population; but they do not embrace the results of our mechanical, manufacturing, and commercial enterprise, nor convey thereby information of the actual physical condition of a country which had its foundation laid but yesterday.

The entire foreign commerce of the United States, in 1790, did not amount in the aggregate to more than the foreign traffic now conducted by the city of Boston, and far less than that transacted now by New-Orleans or New-York. The colonies had been forced to imitate the example of the parent country, and adopt a tariff system, which contributed mainly to retard the development of their commercial spirit. Five years elapsed after the peace of 1785, and the States found themselves, although politically united in effect, still in injurious antagonism to each other as regarded their commercial relations. The original thirteen States framed a Constitution,* to which their allegiance was due; but which had been purposely so drawn up as to deny Congress the right of legislating on the subject of imposing commercial duties. This right was claimed as a reservation to the States individually,* and until they consented to confer that authority upon the General Government, each sought to apply it to the best local advantage. Consequently there resulted, as we have said, an injurious antagonism among the States singly and as a whole; for the duties imposed by New-York were not likely to be transcripts of those of Massachusetts, while between Pennsylvania and New-Jersey, States contiguous by territory, and washed by the same waters, a policy existed, no less at variance. While one advocated and carried a measure for taxing foreign merchandise, the other opposed contrary views; and thus a wide field was opened, inviting the worst forms of contrabrandism. Again, a tonnage duty was also exacted, one of the confederates refusing to trammel trade even in this respect, while another, led by counter convictions, deemed it essential to the welfare of the community. As there had been no previous fraternal union among the colonies, neither could there at once be founded a permanent commercial understanding among the States, each one of which, in its recovered and enlarged independence, felt jealous of vesting too much power in a central head, thus virtually exalted above the individual parties to the compact. Even when it was proposed that Congress should levy a duty of 5 per centum *ad valorem* on foreign merchandise imported, with which to liquidate the claims of the soldiers of the Revolution, and meet the interest falling due on the Federal debt, the negative of the little State of Rhode Island was sufficient to defeat the project.

---

* The Articles of Confederation.

It became obvious, finally, to the most conservative, that such a course was as destructive of the material interests of the Union as pernicious in its social results. Besides, when our ministers or envoys plenipotentiary, accredited abroad, attempted to effect commercial treaties with the nations of Europe, they were met, in most cases, with a decided refusal. France was willing to aid an oppressed people, struggling for freedom, because in this it served itself against Great Britain; but after the Revolution had declared in our favor, and a lull began to succeed the turmoil of politics in Europe, opinions and sympathies underwent a radical change. The nations of the Continent had not cared much whether we succeeded in our revolutionary endeavor or not; and England treated the result more as a humiliation than a vital loss; but when we manifested a disposition to launch our vessels upon the seas, and to compete for that trade which the old world had continued to regard as legitimately its own, antipathies were for the time suppressed, and almost a universal and unanimous combination was formed against us. They refused to recognize us as a commercial people, by refusing to negotiate treaties with us on the subject.

---

* Or, what was equivalent, their entire consent was necessary before Congress could pass any act of a tariff character on commerce.

It was then that the stubborn policy of the States was reflected back upon them in its true light. Great Britain and France took a decided but covert part in continuing things as they were; but thanks to the wise suggestions of the fathers of the country, the people everywhere began to grow distrustful of their own policy, and to inquire into the expediency of modifying the Articles of Confederation, and conferring upon Congress the exclusive right of meddling with commerce.

A National Convention was held, and, as a feature in the arrangement of a new Constitution, commerce was generally provided for. The Secretary of the Treasury, in 1791, in reply to a resolution of inquiry of the House of Representatives, submitted the basis of a commercial system. He argued—which was in direct hostility to the preconceived prejudices of half the American people, who had early imbibed many of the false notions of the mother country—that duties imposed upon imports would be highly disadvantageous to us in building up a foreign trade, and suggested that trade, for the time at least, should be free and unrestricted. "Instead," said the Secretary, "of embarrassing commerce under piles of regulating laws, duties and prohibitions, it should be relieved from all its shackles, in all parts of the world. Would even a single nation begin with the United States this system of free commerce, it would be advisable to begin with that nation."

From this period to the present, the trade and navigation of the United States deserve to be treated of under separate heads.

The suggestion that imports should be admitted into the country free, met with sufficient approbation to induce Congress to refer the question of imposing protective or revenue duties to future legislation. The political condition of Europe had, meanwhile, undergone a change. Its recent tranquillity had been disturbed; and turbulent and threatening movements indicated the approach of a violent, if not overwhelming, storm. It came, and burst upon Europe, inundating the whole Continent with blood. The American Confederacy had been spared all participation in the cause, and therefore evaded the stroke; and this escape, so opportune to it in every respect, infused a spirit into the masses generally to prepare measures for benefiting by the rupture abroad. The country was still new, and the ground had barely been broken for either the grain crop or the shipyard; but the arms which had directed the bayonet for liberty, were soon taught to handle the plough in the wilderness, and the rudder on the deep. The countries of Europe which had supplied fish to the then prosperous West Indies, had necessarily to withdraw their vessels and countermand their orders. The Indies clamored for provisions, and our merchants and farmers undertook, more energetically than ever, to respond to the call. "The wars of the French Revolution," says Dr. Seybert,* "created a demand for our exports, and invited our shipping for the carrying trade of a very considerable portion of Europe: we not only carried the colonial productions to the several parent States, but we also became the purchasers of them in the French, Dutch, and Spanish colonies. A new era was established in our commercial history. The individuals who partook of these advantages were numerous; our catalogue of merchants was swelled much beyond what it was entitled to be from the state of our population. Many persons who had secured moderate capitals from mechanical pursuits, soon became adventurers; and the most adventurous became the most wealthy, and that without the knowledge of any of the principles which govern commerce under ordinary circumstances. No one was limited to any one branch of trade; the same individual was concerned in voyages to Asia, South America, the West Indies, and Europe. Our tonnage increased in a ratio with the extended catalogue of the exports; we seemed to have arrived at the maximum of human prosperity; in proportion to our population, we ranked as the most commercial of nations; in point of value, our trade was only second to that of Great Britain."

The lapse from 1790 to 1807—a period of seventeen years—was more propitious to the commercial interests of the United States than would have been any ordinary period of treble duration. It had the effect of moulding and stamping the American character thenceforth. It induced every one to seek a vocation, for a tempting price was held out as a reward for all manner of labor. It encouraged, above all, persons to turn their attention to agriculture; for in that consisted the principal demand which Europe and the West Indies had made upon our industry. It urged, as by so many words, mariners to rig their ships, fishermen to man their shallops, husbandmen to sow crops, and merchants to construct storehouses. The ambition thus aroused, and continuing to be rewarded for seventeen years, could not be repressed by self-will, nor suppressed by external force. Although seeking by every available means to maim each other, the belligerent nations of Europe could not contemplate unmoved the wealth which the Americans were accumulating through their maritime channels; and in this they made common cause, that they permitted the most flagitious outrages to be committed by their cruisers upon American shipping, in the hope to extinguish our growing commerce; but a hope entertained in vain. Our imports for domestic consumption declined as our exports increased. Every year we seemed to become less dependent upon foreign countries, while in turn they became more and more dependent on us. During the seventeen years stated, the following were the returns made of our foreign trade:—

---

* Statistics of United States, p. 61.

YEARS.	*Imports.*	*Exports.*
1791	$52,200,000	$19,012,041
1792	31,500,000	20,753,098
1793	31,100,000	26,109,572
1794	34,600,000	33,026,233
1795	69,756,268	47,989,472
1796	(81,436,164	67,064,097
1797	75,379,406	56,850,206
1798	68,551,700	61,527,097
1799	79,068,148	78,665,522
1800	$91,252,768	$70,971,780
1801	111,363,511	94,115,925
1802	76,333,333	72,483,160
1803	64,700,000	55,800,033
1804	85,000,000	77,699,074
1805	120,000,000	95,566,021
1806	129,000,000	101,536,963
1807	138,000,000	108,343,150
	—	—

The imports down to 1791 had been mainly, if not all, consumed in the American markets; after this period, large invoices, amounting to over one-third the gross aggregate, were imported for the Mediterranean and West India markets. The exports, it will be seen, had increased from $19,000,000 to $138,000,000. But the violation of our shipping on the high seas had now become so frequent, and in character so wanton, that it was unsafe to send out cargoes except to near ports; and insurance and botromry had so risen, in consequence of the dangers to be apprehended, that some action was necessary on the part of the Federal Government to endeavor to arrest the evils. As a people we numbered four millions, but, without a navy, it was as if we had numbered but four hundred. Our defences and revenues were trifling compared with those of our aggressive neighbors. It was with some embarrassment that we dared to expend $6,000,000 per annum for the support of the General Government. The sales of public lands amounted to little over half a million. So that $16,000,000 of the $17,000,000 of revenue were expected and exacted from our commerce. If we had declared war, our foreign trade would have been destroyed, and the nation bankrupted, without immediate remedy. Under these circumstances, the General Government pursued the only expedient course left to it—it pronounced an embargo, which should partially relieve our commerce from the depredations of pirates sailing under the flags of friendly nations. As nothing is more fatal to the interests of a nation than an embargo directed against maritime intercourse, being literally a prohibition against trade, so in this instance the greatest immediate sufferers were our own merchants, and, after them, the agricultural classes. But the general benefit to the country, on the other hand, was to be taken into consideration; so that, notwithstanding the act was temporarily unpopular, all finally concurred in admitting its policy and expediency. It had the result,, as was foreseen, of ridding the high seas of piratical cruisers, and of restoring confidence among the underwriters and vessel-owners. The Embargo Act lasted two years, but, short as was the period of its imposition, it had well-nigh prostrated our commercial energies, as the following figures will show:—

YEARS.	*Imports.*	*Exports.*	YEARS.	*Imports.*	*Exports.*
1808	$56,940,000	$22,439,960	1809	$59,400,000	$52,203,231

This falling off from $138,000,000 of imports to $56,000,000, and exports from $108,000,000 to $22,000,000, was most paralyzing and discouraging; but the land furnished the necessaries of life, and our merchant vessels were hauled up for repairs; while those who had been engaged in pursuits identified with commerce, turned their attention to speculating in real estate, and clearing the soil.

We have said that the country was poor, and that the government depended mainly on the customs for revenue. Its civil list cost about $1,400,000 per annum, its military establishment $3,100,000; and its naval establishment $1,800,000. Its entire expenditure for civil and military support was $6,500,000, and its income $17,000,000; but the Embargo Act caused the revenue to fall to less than $8,000,000. The government was not, therefore, in a condition to increase either its civil, its military, or its naval establishment, without incurring a further debt, which there was not even a prospective hope of paying; besides, the veterans of 1776, or their relicts, had claims before Congress, which neither Congress nor the nation would think of denouncing or refusing.

Meanwhile concert of action, in any measure, could be carried on only with great difficulty. The people occupied a continent, but it would have been much better had they occupied as many acres as they owned square miles. Two thousand post-offices had been located, and thirty-six thousand miles of post routes opened; but of what avail for the speedy transmission of intelligence were either, situated as the former were scores of miles apart, and the latter were travelled only once, on an average, a fortnight?

Under such circumstances, the blow that had fallen upon trade was the more severely felt. But the spirit of enterprise remained. No sooner had the embargo been removed, than this fact was manifested in the prompt manner with which our merchants seized upon the opportunity again to extend their transactions:

	Imports.	*Exports.*		*Imports.*	*Exports.*
1810	$85,400,000	$66.757,974	1811	$53,400,000	$61,316,831

It seemed, however, that although Great Britain invoked Europe against Napoleon, whose greatest crime in its eyes consisted in his endeavor to destroy its commerce, it did not hesitate to commit acts against others quite in keeping with his acts against that power. British cruisers, under one pretext or another, persisted in legitimatizing piracy on the high seas, and making our shipping mainly the sufferer. This wholesale iniquity, combined with other causes of complaint, led the way to the war of 1812; and from 1811 to 1815, another period, disastrous to our trade, intervened.

	Imports.	*Exports.*		*Imports.*	*Exports.*
1812	$77,030,000	$38.527,236	1814	$12,965,000	$6,927,441
1813	$22,005,000	$27,855,997			

Thus our foreign trade fell in importance to a point below what it had been during many periods in our colonial history. But from this point also it took another rise, and has continued, despite adverse legislation, to increase, until at present it ranks in magnitude next to the leading maritime power of the world. [See Table A, annexed.]

In a country so extensive as the United States, with an abundance of land, and labor comparatively low, it is strange that Congress should have conceived the intention of forcing the people into pursuits so antagonistical to their interests. With us, from the first year of our confederacy to the present day, agricultural employments have been those best adapted to the promotion of our welfare; and if, with all the skill we have acquired, means at our command, and experience obtained, agriculture is still the local pursuit which insures the largest reward, how much more were we dependent on the soil during the weakest and least capable period of our history? But Congress, without reflecting that we were not the consumers only, saw with apprehension that the immense cargoes which our vessels carried from our shores, were more than counterbalanced by the cargoes of European merchandise with which they returned. That body deemed it a point of wisdom to coerce the country to become a gigantic manufacturing establishment—to discard the rich fruits of the soil, with which we purchased fabrics for our own and the West India markets, to abandon a policy and system of labor by which we furnished Europe with necessaries of life in exchange for goods that were needful at home, and which were required, in place of money, to buy cargoes of merchandise and products of the West Indies, without which, otherwise, our relations must have been cut off.

The proposition that a country, so new as our own, in which, as we have said, lands were cheap and wages comparatively low, should become a manufacturing establishment, sufficiently competent to rival the old and experienced nations of Europe, was as preposterous as impossible. Not so thought our legislators. They argued, and with truth, that our rivers traversed the country in every direction, and poured into the ocean at convenient points along the coast, with a shore extent of 4,000 miles; that nature had in this afforded us avenues to market which required neither repair nor concern—had supplied us with plenty of wood, coals, and minerals—had built dams for us, and stocked the earth with timber, and, in a word, prepared a habitation that needed only industry to render life as prosperous in it, in one branch of business, as another. If these considerations (only requiring the plausibility of argument to guarantee them) sufficed to warrant a people to abandon an obvious advantage for another extremely doubtful, the argument was fairly and forcibly put; but it is a view that has misled before, and will mislead again. The woodman, with an axe upon his shoulder, has little to contend for but creating a market for his timber; the husbandman, with a few sheep, a rake and a hoe, may both feed himself, and furnish a crop of wool to the manufacturer; and the agriculturist may gather profits from his first sowing, although he settles in the midst of a wilderness, and fences his inclosures with brushwood. Is this all that is needful to the manufacturer—no additional preparation, experience or means? An immense capital, when an extensive competition is thought of, is required; that capital does not only supply material and hands, but it is made to replace every loss incurred in experiments. Time, too, is requisite, as well as the establishment of an intimate correspondence throughout the world—time for getting machinery in operation, for testing material, and becoming familiar with the minutia of fabricating, for instructing hands, and establishing (what might be called) schools of apprenticeship in the workshop and factory; and a general correspondence, in order that, by a system of reciprocity, every improvement might be had in season, and every kind of information imparted and obtained that would conduce to extend discovery, and promote the industry of all. America was prepared for no such steps; and the endeavor to force the people to abandon their legitimate (because more natural) pursuits, fishing and agriculture, was one of those evil counsels that often obtrude upon deliberative assemblies. In consequence, an act was passed the year after the proclamation of peace with Great Britain (1816), in which heavy duties were imposed upon fabricated goods imported from Europe. The result of this interference with the course of trade is shown by the returns between the years 1816 and 1833, since when other modifications have been made. The act of 1816 was followed up by another in 1824, one in 1828, and another in 1832. These severally and entirely had in contemplation the raising of revenue, and, as it was averred, the *protection* of American interests. The best reply that can be made to the policy of these acts, is that which the returns furnish, by which we perceive that our exports, for a period of sixteen years, *remained almost stationary, and our imports declined to* $46,000,000!

So much for tariff restrictions. But other facts, relating to the financial difficulties of the period, and which had their influence on the welfare of the country, claim their share of attention. We will return to this again hereafter, and also continue to review our commerce in a future number of the REVIEW. Meanwhile, we have reserved to speak of our navigation as a separate, but not a distinct feature of the subject.

In a paper published on the Colonial Trade of America,* it appears that the proportion of shipping owned in this country prior to the War of the Revolution, employed in the trade of the Colonies and Great Britain, was as follows:—

In the Colonies of	Proportion of vessels belonging to merchants resident in the British European dominions.	Proportion of vessels belonging to British merchants occasionally resident in those colonies that now form the U. States.	Proportion of vessels belonging to merchants who were natives and permanent inhabitants of those colonies that are now the United States.
New-England	⅛	⅛	¾
New-York	⅜	⅜	¼
Pennsylvania	¼	⅜	⅜
Maryland and Virginia	¾	⅛	⅛
North Carolina	⅝	¼	⅛
South Carolina and Georgia	⅝	¼	⅛

Owned by British subjects resident in the British dominions, six-eighths of the whole; owned by the colonists, two-eighths of the whole—that is, only about one-third was owned by residents proper of the colonies. The number and tonnage of vessels employed between the colonies and the British West India Islands were as follows:—

	Belonging to British residents in the colonies or British dominions.		Belonging to the Colonists.		Total.	
Navigating between	*Vessels.*	*Tonnage.*	*Vessels.*	*Tonnage.*	*Vessels.*	*Tonnage.*
Colonies and British colonies	43	1,869	131	5,609	174	7,478
Am. colonies and Brit. W. I.	93	4,489	651	31,423	744	35,912
	136	6,358	782	37,032	918	43,390
Gr. Britain and Am. colonies	497	65,058	165	21,686	662	86,744
	633	71,416	947	58,718	1,580	130,134

Thus it will be seen that at the opening of the Revolutionary

---

* Report of the Lords of the Privy Council for Trade and Plantations, 1791. Appendix, p. xxi.

War, of the vessels and tonnage trading between the American colonies and Great Britain, amounting to 662 vessels, and 86,744 tons, British owners held 497 vessels and 65,058 tons—otherwise, six-eighths of the whole; that of the vessels and tonnage trading to the British West Indies, and other British colonies, amounting to 918 vessels, and 43,390 tons, British owners held 136 vessels and 6,358 tons, or about one-sixth of the whole. From this statement it will be seen that, while the distant foreign trade with the British dominions was almost wholly in the hands of British subjects having a permanent residence elsewhere than in the colonies of America, the near trade with the British possessions was almost wholly in the hands of the colonists. Therefore, the actual tonnage of all kinds, trading from the American ports with the British dominions, amounted to 1,580 vessels and 130,184 tons. After the war, intercourse between the United States and British dominions was resumed, with the following shipping:—

	Vessels.	*Tonnage.*
Belonging to Great Britain trading with the United States	261	52,592
" to " " " between the United States and British col.	158	10,219
" to " " " between the U. States and B. W. Indies	181	20,912
	600	83,723
Belonging to the United States trading with Great Britain	163	26,564
" to the " " " " West Indies	none	none.
	763	110,287

On this basis was resumed intercourse between the United States and the parent country. We shall trace the progress of this intercourse hereafter.

A.

YEARS.	*Imports.*	*Exports.*	YEARS.	*Imports.*	*Exports.*
1815	$113,041,274	$52,557,753	1835	$149,895,742	$121,693,597
1816	147,103,000	81,920,452	1836	189,980,035	128,663,040
1817	99,250,000	87,671,569	1837	140,989,217	117,419,376
1818	121,750,000	93,281,133	1838	108,486,616	113,717,404
1819	87,125,000	70,142,521	1839	121,028,416	102,092,139
1820	74,450,000	69,691,669	1840	131,571,950	104,805,891
1821	62,585,724	64,974,382	1841	127,946,177	121,851,803
1822	83,241,541	72,160,281	1842	100,162,087	104,691,534
1823	77,579,267	74,699,030	1843	64,753,799*	84,346,480*
1824	80,549,007	75,986,657	1844	108,435,035	111,200,046
1825	96,340,075	99,535,388	1845	117,254,564	114,646,606
1826	84,974,477	77,595,322	1846	121,691,799	113,488,576
1827	79,484,068	82,324,827	1847	146,545,638	158,648,622
1828	88,509,824	72,264,686	1848	154,977,928	154,036,436
1829	74,492,527	72,358,671	1849	147,857,439	145,755,820
1830	70,876,920	73,849,508	1850	178,138,318	136,946,912
1831	103,191,134	81,310,583	1851	216,224,932	218,388,011
1832	101,029,266	87,176,943	1852	212,613,282	209,641,625
1833	108,118,311	90,140,433	1853	267,678,647	229,486,875
1834	126,521,332	104,336,973	1854	—	—

* Nine months.

Art. VII.—INSOLVENCY AMONGST MERCHANTS.

It is not the purpose of this brief article to treat of the legal relations of debtor and creditor. That is a theme which has been exhausted by the best talent of the bar and bench. Our desire is, rather, to throw out some reflections as to the moral relations and duties of the unfortunate insolvent and the injured creditor.

There is not, perhaps, a more practical, every-day subject, than this. If it is true, that ninety out of every hundred of our mercantile community have, one time or another, failed; and if it is true, that the uncertainties of commerce are especially experienced in the South, then it can be well understood that it is no holiday theme we discuss.

There is hardly a year which passes away but that the duties involved in these relations are debated,—we fear with little practical benefit.

The position of an embarrassed Merchant is no "bed of roses." The anxious days and sleepless nights of the man of commerce, whose good name has been his pride, and whose pride may be his woeful ruin, fill up many a thrilling scene in the great battle of life. Indeed, so fearful is the conflict which is waged in the human breast, under such trying circumstances, that most men seek to clothe their distress in a callousness and levity of mien, which, though at war with all their previous deportment, too soon becomes part of their natures. We thus have the painful exhibitions of indifference to money obligations, that justly forms the reproach of many mercantile communities. The injury inflicted upon the credit of whole cities, by such a reputation, is not to be measured, but is keenly felt at every turn, and in all external intercourse of every trader who lives in such communities. How important in such view, then, is the existence of a high moral sense in every body of merchants! With a tone of unswerving probity pervading the commercial classes of a city, the security of a creditor is greater than any which all the statutes for the collection of debt can ever give him.

What, then, is the duty of an embarrassed merchant? We take it for granted that no business man is ever in such a state without foreseeing it long beforehand, and that the day of disaster seldom, if ever, comes with crushing suddenness upon any one. Such misfortunes are generally of gradual growth and approach. It is not by one sudden deluge; but by the slow-wearing attrition of extravagance and misconduct, that the bulwarks of mercantile fortune are usually swept away. But whether speedily or slowly; whether suddenly as a "thief in the night," or gradually as "the gnawing tooth of time," bankruptcy arrives to few men without many *avant courriers* of its coming. Nay, that knowledge is generally long felt before the world is ever made aware of its imminence. And it is one of the most painful and bitter attendants of insolvency that it has been hugged, with a Spartan heroism, to the secret bosom which it rends, long—long before the inquisitive world is made aware of its approach. The cheerful face, the placid smile, and what to a proud, true and honest heart is still more agonizing, the petty deception and misrepresentation are all to be worn and used, when the soul is sinking with its accumulating burden, and is sick with despair at the prospect before it. Many and devious are the devices of that burdened heart for escape. Like the hunted and wearied stag, it tries first the stream and then the wood, that it may elude the pursuit of its close-chasing misfortunes; at length, however, with strength all gone, and resources all spent, it is brought to bay, and its brave race is over.

What, then, is the true path of the merchant, standing on the verge of bankruptcy, with no sure and certain help, turn him which way he will? We believe there is but one answer—surrender. Let false pride, leading to still falser morality, be thrown aside, and let the oppressed trader manfully and frankly say to his creditors, "I am no longer worthy of credit, and will delude you no more; take all I have, and give me the best settlement my circumstances seem to you to justify." Let the embarrassed debtor act thus, and not endeavor to sustain himself by plunging deeper and deeper into the mire. Let him reflect that attempts to sustain a tottering fortune by larger extension of credit seldom, if ever, succeeds. The merchant who endeavors to meet his engagements by buying on credit, that he may realize money at a sacrifice, wherewith to bolster up his sinking credit, is almost certain to accumulate further losses, and, sooner or later, to come down with such a crash as may involve those whose poverty and confidence render his misfortune doubly painful. Nor is this to be wondered at. For he enters into his operations, not thinking, am I prudent, or is it safe, but only or mainly reflecting how soon he can get cash for his credit-purchases, and how long he can meet old liabilities with newly acquired funds. With such aims it would be impossible for any one to trade successfully, or safely. For, difficult as it is to form a correct estimate of the course of the markets, with the fullest information, the most accurate statistics—carefully analyzed by the clearest and most dispassionate judgment—how much more difficult to forecast the future of Prices Current, when our first inquiry blinds us against anything but our wishes, which are but fathers, oftentimes, to our conclusions!

But to argue at length against such a course, is almost superfluous. The immorality of it is not quite so obvious, or if so, has not so often pressed on our minds. We have supposed our merchant near the verge of open bankruptcy, and we have supposed him conscious of the peril of his position. We now suppose him entering the marts where his name has been esteemed, and where his actual condition is unknown. We find him buying of this and then that commodity; too often settling his accounts with a falsehood on his lips, or deception in his conversation, fearful, lest even the beating of his secret heart may reveal what is known only there. We find him putting his name to a printed form of promissory note—agreeing that on such a day, he will, for value received, pay his creditor the amount he owes him. Hurriedly does he sign his name, lest conscience may upbraid him with the lie he is writing, and hastily does he go forth with the ill-gotten goods, for no other term should be applied. In possession of these new resources, the hard-pressed merchant commences to sell the property at any and every price, so as to obtain the readiest and most available supply of cash. The regular and slow payment of his customers does not now satisfy him—for he is not aiming to meet his recent obligations, incurred by the purchases of the property he is selling, but only to pay off a debt of more ancient date, and more pressing character. Thus he goes on, robbing Peter to pay Paul—every day showing a wider gap between his assets and resources, until finally he is brought to his last dollar, and the long-impending failure occurs. We have but faintly put such a course in its true light. We wish we had words adequate to describe it in all its real folly and turpitude, so that each and every merchant might see it, stripped of all the petty excuses and miserable apologies which so often conceal the dishonesty of such a policy. It was in the review of just such transactions that we once heard the gifted and lamented Prentiss say to a jury, that conduct of this kind made the name *merchant* a term of reproach, well derived from *mercator*, *thief*.

But perhaps we may be told, that oftentimes just such a course as we describe has enabled a house to weather a storm and double a point, beyond which prosperity and wealth attended them at every step, and subsequently posts of honor and usefulness were attained. Doubtless a few instances are remembered, whilst the countless thousands of houses lost in the storm are forgotten. Just so the card-table and lottery have, here and there, rescued a fallen fortune from ruin, and a fair name from disgrace. The many myriads who have had a different experience, we need not mention. Success may sometimes conceal forever the dishonor and dishonesty of the gambling merchant—but can never justify him. For, we take it, that it can never be right to enter into promises, when our ability to fulfil them is known to be almost impossible; nor can it be right to take the property of one creditor to pay off our obligations to another, leaving the first to stand the brunt of losses, which should most naturally fall on the latter.

Having now discussed the duty of the insolvent, and clearly shown that his true course is to surrender, at the moment he is satisfied, to meet fully all his obligations, let us consider his duty, *after suspension.* His position now is one of singular difficulty and delicacy. From being the debtor, he has become, in some sort, the agent and trustee of his creditors, and a heavy moral responsibility rests upon his shoulders. His creditors are of every sort and class—many are laborers, and some are poor; many are friends, who have been his endorsers or securities without compensation or return; many are strangers or planters, whose property he has been appointed to sell, the proceeds of which seem almost sacred. Justice to all, and favor to none, would seem to be the clearest dictate of duty; but no general and equal distribution can ever precisely attain this, when the obligation of the debts is unequal. We think it is clear that the poor man and the laborer first deserves his pay. The principle that "the laborer is worthy of his hire," is as true literally as it is figuratively. The sons of toil, whose hands are made horny with their rugged struggle for bread, are those upon whom loss falls most severely—involving to them not mere ephemeral position or worldly credit, but food, raiment, even life. The lien of the workingman and the mechanic is, in every State of this Union, esteemed privileged, and a preference of their claims is but a practical conformity to the statute in every court of the land. But the reason of this privilege extends it even further. As the law interferes to protect the laborer, because his condition is one of comparative helplessness and ignorance, so the virtuous debtor ought rightly to hold sacred all debts to the poor, the widow, and the orphan. The same potential considerations apply to them as to the laborer, and no charge of undue preference can ever be adduced against the exhibition of such preference.

These two classes of creditors being satisfied, the insolvent merchant now enters upon the most delicate part of his duty. He finds his obligations now composed of those to fellow-merchants, to endorsers, to depositors, and to fiduciary and honorary trusts. These may not include all that every merchant may owe, but they are sufficient to include all that ordinarily arise in the course of business. To lay down any general principle for guidance in practical life is easy enough, but to apply each without turn or variance to every action, would be fraught with difficulty and wrong, even were it possible. But the most difficult of all applications of the principle of justice to all men, is that of the settlement of an insolvent estate. Trust funds and obligations to sureties and endorsers have, by common consent, and many of our legislatures, been elevated to privileged debts. Under the head of trust funds, we class all deposits of money for safe keeping and not bearing interest, all funds directed to be applied to specific purposes, and all balances occurring from the sales of produce which have been sold by the insolvent for a commission. We have purposely limited the kind of deposits under this head to those not chargeable with interest. Whenever compensation is given for deposits, no matter how small, then the obligation ceases to be different from an ordinary loan. Its being subject to call, does not make it any more sacred than a loan payable on some specific day. Nay, the very indefiniteness of the day of payment would seem, in some sense, to palliate a failure to meet it, at a sudden and unexpected moment. But of these varieties of sacred obligations, there are many which have even a stronger obligation than others of the same class. Money loaned from courtesy and friendship, to be returned in a few days, would seem eminently privileged, and is so held amongst merchants. For the plea upon which such loans are obtained is eminently one which removes it out of the pale of ordinary obligations, and makes it really a debt of honor, which an honest man would sell the very coat from his back to pay.

In regard to security debts, we think many are esteemed as sacred which are not rightly so. If, for instance, two merchants are mutual endorsers, each for his own profit using the name of the other, we cannot esteem the failure of one as creating any other than an ordinary business debt. The reason is obvious. The relation was created for mutual advantage. As such it was created by the solvent trader for his own benefit, enabling him to buy goods, or obtain money, on profitable terms. We can, therefore, see in this case no real difference between an exchange in notes, or endorsements, and a trade for goods. The frauds and dangers connected with the general system of endorsements amongst merchants sometimes appear so great, that we think legislation ought rather to curb than encourage the relation. We therefore think the statute of Louisiana most judicious, in withholding from such claims any peculiar preference. It may often bear hard upon individual cases, but if it tend to prevent one of the most dangerous practices amongst merchants, pregnant with more disaster and ruin than all other commercial causes combined, then, in the main, it is well that the legal equality is created. When merchants know that being a security bestows no privilege, they will be wary how they endorse, and have a good ground for absolutely refusing to do so. We have our doubts, therefore, without extraordinary circumstances of hardship attend such obligations, whether the right-minded merchant in Louisiana should hold such claims as sacred. The statute certainly forbids such a view, and the honorable man is always an abider of law. The next class of obligations to which we would refer are those for deposits, and money held in trust, and for balances arising from sales of produce. Upon the sanctity of these claims we think too much cannot be said. They are to our mind eminently privileged; and every exertion should be made, every nerve should be strained, before disregarding their sacredness. How much callousness has, in this day, come to be felt about these debts, is most lamentable. Every merchant ought to feel that an invasion of these claims is a stab at his own reputation, a blow to that character on which high commercial prosperity and wealth alone can be built. The prevalence of bad principles upon this subject in a community is of most serious detriment to its welfare. If the planter cannot feel assured that his produce will be honestly dealt by, and the proceeds faithfully kept for him, he will feel little disposition to consign his property to such a community. He ships his corn, cotton, tobacco, or sugar, to his merchant, as his agent, and reposes in him the most solemn confidence. He is to stand in the place of the owner, and to do by it as if it were his own. For all this, his commissions are paid out of the very property itself, and the proceeds held subject to the owner's order. Our law-books and judicial decisions are filled with comments upon the gravity of the trust thus confided to the commission agent or merchant. His position is one as responsible as it is high. The duties he incurs are not less solemn because they are minute, and of hourly occurrence. For that reason, they are to be performed with a keener perception of their obligation constantly spurring us up to a remembrance of the high trust which has been conferred. The multiplicity of details is apt to blind us to a sense of the attitude in which we stand, and it is only by such general and elevated views to guide us, that we can "take heed lest we fall." The relation being so sacred, then, between the commission merchant and planter, or shipper, we need not demonstrate further the sacredness of balances held by the former for the latter. Indeed, it has often been thought that all such funds held in trust for others, ought to be kept as a special deposit for account of those to whom they respectively belong. Certainly, if such a course were practical, and generally pursued, we would have fewer shameful bankruptcies, and more staunch merchants amongst us. It is by the bolstering aid of such funds that the reckless merchant is encouraged and sustained in his gambling speculations, which are only exposed when the trust is violated and the balances squandered. If such funds are so often the temptation to extravagance and overtrading, it would be far better that they should be required to be set apart in bank for the use of the owners.

The nature of money-deposits in the hands of agents, merchants, and banks, is so precisely similar to the trusts we have just treated of, that we need only repeat what we have said of them.

The next relation of the insolvent which commands our notice, is that to his family. The rights and claims of the wife and children have received a large share of attention in the code of Louisiana. The legal provisions upon this subject it is not within the scope of our article to discuss, even were we competent to the task. But we may be permitted, first, to state briefly what they are, and second, to remark what is their practical effect upon the *moral relations* we are treating.

In Louisiana, when a man marries a woman who is possessed of estate, either real or personal, their joint funds form a capital, upon which the husband can bargain and trade. The possession and administration of this paraphernal property give him credit and standing, and, in the hurry and bustle of commerce, few men stop to ask if their neighbor is trading on his own or borrowed capital. The handling and possession of much property or money always give an idea of wealth, and inspire credit. And yet, in the marital state, nothing may be more fallacious. The husband may, indeed, appear to be the owner of the ample dowry of his wife, as he has its usufruct, and enjoys its administration; but if he fails, his wife is not only his creditor, but even his preferred creditor, with a tacit mortgage on all his estate, securing to her the dower she brought him. This "tacit lien" is, in like manner, inherited by her children; and, in all the transactions of the husband, this secret claim slumbers, in quiet but potent strength, over all his estate.

This is not the place to discuss the policy of the law, but its *morale* is sadly evinced by the records of every court of our State. We say nothing now of the evils of setting up a distinct interest for the wife and children from the husband,—the most fruitful source of domestic discord ever invented by the wit of law-makers. We say nothing now of the door thrown open to nefarious frauds by such provisions. These are points which we have not time or space to discuss. It was upon this very subject that Charles O'Conor, then a member of the New-York Constitutional Convention, said—

"The finer union of interests in married life, as established by the common law, occasionally, in special cases, produced deplorable evils, but its general influence upon the manners of society was most benign. But change this, and convert man and wife into mere partners, and a most serious injury would result to the endearing relations of married life. The nations of Continental Europe, *governed by the civil law*, formed in this respect a striking contrast to England, where the Divine simplicity and unity of this relation, under the common law, prevailed. All such systems, of separate interest in marriage, tend to sever the bonds of union, and create jealousies, and heartburnings, and infidelities between husband and wife."

But, there are duties to one's family, which are paramount to all other obligations. It is clearly the right of the insolvent to shield his wife from degrading poverty, and his children from the biting pangs of hunger. The man is worse than an infidel, who cares not first for his own household. No creditor can rightfully demand of his unfortunate debtor the sacrifice of the comforts of life. Education and sustenance are the higher law claims on the means of the father and husband. So far as an insolvent's means are necessary to these, they are privileged to his family. But the necessity must be no indefinite or vague one, permitting the use of those luxuries and elegances of life, in which the injured creditor can himself hardly indulge. Whilst his creditors suffer and are pinched by want, it ill becomes the family of the insolvent to roll in the lap of wealth, and enjoy the appliances offered by ill-gotten means. How far this rule should extend, every man's conscience must determine. But this is certain, that, in these latter days, too much laxity prevails upon this subject. The insolvent seems to think his measure of duty is accomplished when he surrenders all his present means to his creditors. Not so. If he is young and healthy, and good fortune afterwards awaits him, he is bound, by every principle of justice, if not of law, to go forward to his creditors and pay on, as long as his duty to his family will permit. It may be true that the creditors have given him a final discharge, and that they no longer expect anything from his exertions. It matters not how slender may be their hopes, or how feeble may be their legal claims, his path of duty is as clear as noon-day, and no right-thinking mind will attempt to evade the solemnity of the moral obligation. And how much, how infinitely richer will his children be, when, in after days, they think of the fidelity of their father, than if they are constantly reminded that the wealth they now enjoy is built upon the wreck of their parent's promises! The heritage of a good name and high character is better to a merchant just launching into life, than letters of credit or reputation of wealth. That heritage is at once an earnest of his training to others, and a *stimulus* of example for himself. For a while, the busy world may seem to forget these things, and prosperity appear only to wait upon the unscrupulous; but when the true, faithful, honest merchant falls in our midst, and is carried to his fathers, leaving behind him a memory redolent of good deeds and lofty integrity, then all unite to praise him, and the true men he leaves behind are content to say, "May this, too, be our reward," and "may our end be like his."

We come now, finally, to that of the duties of the creditor to his insolvent debtor. The relation demands but a few thoughts, but it is not the less important. If we have presented a high rule for the guidance of the insolvent, we have one quite as high to lay down to the creditor.

Insolvency may imply indiscretion and imprudence in the management of business, but does not necessarily indicate want of principle or honesty. The failure of a merchant ought not to subject him to sweeping terms of reproach. Yet how often do we hear the creditor charge the unfortunate insolvent, with whom but a short while since he was on the best of terms, with the violation of every law of God and man! How often do we see the pure and upright gentleman bitterly reviled, in the hour of his misfortune, by those who were proud to serve his beck and do his bidding in the day of prosperity! This should not be. And merchants, beyond all others, should be wary how they deal harshly by their delinquent debtors. They should ever be guarded against laying heavy charges at the doors of their bankrupt friends. Much censure, and grave censure, naturally arise at such times,—perhaps much censure and grave censure are justly deserved. But, "*In omnibus Charitas*" was the kindly motto of old St. Augustine, and no man should remember it more than the merchant creditor; for he knows not what day he may himself be arraigned for the same short-comings, and the "poisoned chalice" of his own reproaches be commended to his own lips by an even-handed justice. The chances of commerce are open to all. The prudent and imprudent may sometimes be borne down by the same crashes of the monetary world. Do what he will, the most rapacious and prudent may be overtaken by insolvency, and if he has dealt hardly by *his* debtors, he will then feel how unmerited and unjust was his course.

In settlement with an honest debtor, it is the duty of the creditor, as it is his privilege, to cheer rather than to crush his unfortunate fellow-citizen. And if he does this, he is far more apt to be rewarded by the renewed exertions of the debtor. How it can be done need hardly be told. There are innumerable modes, involving little pecuniary sacrifice, and requiring but a cheering word and a hearty God-speed, which may prove the redemption of a worthy man from ruin and despair. But these are considerations so obvious, that we need delay no longer in bringing this article to a close.

Art. VIII.—STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

In addition to the statistics of the United States founded upon the Census of 1850, which were published in the January number of the Review, we add a few others which will be found of general interest. Some typographical errors occurred in one of the tables in the January number, viz., the tables of ratios of increase of the States since 1790, and we therefore republish them correct, and in full, instead of in the condensed shape in which they then appeared.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF NEWSPAPER AND PERIODICAL PUBLICATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1840 AND 1850.

1850.

	Number of Publications.	Number of copies circulated Annually.	Total White and Free Colored Population.	Number of Inhabitants to each Publication.	Number of Political Publications.	Number of Inhabitants to each Political Publication.
Maine, N. Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut,	396	81,683,724	2,728,116	6,889	200	13,640
New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia,	865	235,543,983	6,528,407	7,376	567	11,513
Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida,	245	22,780,228	2,385,785	9,738	148	16,120
Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Tennessee,	258	25,446,143	2,078,866	8,057	175	11,879
Kentucky, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa,	731	60,096,932	6,081,520	8,319	539	11,282
California, Minnesota, New-Mexico, Oregon, Utah,	11	858,968	184,895	16,808	1	184,895

1840.

	Number of Publications.	Number of copies circulated Annually.	Total White and Free Colored Population.	Number of Inhabitants to each Publication.	Number of Political Publications.	Number of Inhabitants to each Political Publication.
Miane, N. Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut,	274	Not specified. —	2,234,799	8,156	Not specified. —	Not specified. —
New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia,	605	—	5,019,764	8,297	—	—
Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida,	156	—	2,004,880	12,851	—	—
Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Tennessee,	171	—	1,425,413	8,835	—	—
Kentucky, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa,	395	—	3,890,507	9,849	—	—

PROPORTION OF NATIVE AND FOREIGN BORN POPULATION IN THE DIFFERENT SECTIONS OF THE UNION.

NAME OF STATES.	Total Free Population. Native.	Total Foreign Population.	Proportion of Foreign to Nativo, per cent.
New-England	2,421,867	306,249	12.65
Middle	5,447,733	1,080,674	19.84
Southern	2,342,255	43,530	1.86
Southwestern	1,973,531	105,335	5.34
Northern	5,401,702	679,818	12.59
Northwestern	155,873	28,996	18.60
Total	17,742,961	2,244,602	12.65

AGRICULTURAL RATIO TABLES OF THE STATES.

SECTIONS.		Area in Acres.	Land in use. Imp'd.	Land in use. Unimp'd.	Proportion of Land in use to area. Imp'd. Per ct.	Proportion of Land in use to area. Unimp'd. Per ct.
New-England States		41,107,200	11,150,594	7,216,864	27.13	17.56
Middle	"	72,333,440	26,200,608	16,212,717	36 22	22.41
Southern	"	161,356,800	26,614,289	61,169,373	16.49	37.91
Southwestern	"	358,999,680	16,070,676	44,625,042	4.48	12.43
Northern	"	251,507,200	32,643,567	46,963,790	12.98	18.67
Northwestern	"	685,427.840	352,880	4,340,214	.05	.63
Total		1,570,732,160	113,032,614	180,528,000	7.20	11.49

SECTIONS.		Number of Farms.	Average value of Agricultural Implements.	Average No. of acres to each Farm.	Average value per acre.
New-England States		167,575	$77 20	109	$20 27
Middle	"	350,290	126 31	121	28 06
Southern	"	220,008	98 37	399	5 32
Southwestern	"	192,037	164 44	316	5 34
Northern	"	512,297	79 47	155	11 38
Northwestern	"	6,190	75 14	758	1 88
*Total		1,448,397	$104 65	202	$11 14

STATISTICS OF EDUCATION—NATIVE AND FOREIGN POPULATION OF U. S.

		Native Born. White Population.	*Native Born.* Number who cannot read and write.	Proportion who cannot read and write to Native white Population.	*Foreign Born.* Total Foreign Population.	*Foreign Born.* Number who cannot read and write.	Proportion who cannot read and write to total Foreign Population.
New-England States		2,399,651	6,219	.26	305,444	44,692	14.63
Middle	"	5,219,747	96,181	1.84	1,079,300	103,096	9.55
Southern	"	2,247,948	209,032	9.30	43,218	2,282	5.28
Southwestern	"	1,946,468	163,738	8.41	104,314	9,511	9.12
Northern	"	5,343,864	265,515	4.97	679,499	31,470	4.63
Northwestern	"	154,855	27,099	17.50	28,760	4,063	14.13
Total		17,312,533	767,784	4.43	2,240,535	195,114	8.71

		Free Colored. Native.			Foreign.
New-England States		22,216	1,878	8.45	805
Middle	"	227,986	51,111	22.42	1,374
Southern	"	94,307	19,989	21.20	312
Southwestern	"	27,063	5,018	18.54	1,021
Northern	"	57,838	12,399	21 44	319
Northwestern	"	1.018	127	12.47	236
Total		430,428	90,522	21.03	4,067

FUTURE PROGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES.

YEARS.	No. 1. On the basis of the increase of population from 1840 to 1850. Ratio, 35.87.	No. 2. Average increase from 1790 to 1850. Ratio, 34 45.	No. 3. On the basis of the incr'se from 1840 to 1850, after deducting the number of Foreigners who arrived in that time. Ratio, 26.95.	No. 4. On the basis of the average increase in the State of Delaware from 1790 to 1850. Ratio, 7.68.	No. 5. On the basis of the mean of the three ratios in columns 2, 3, and 4. Ratio, 23.02	No. 6. On the basis of the mean of the two ratios in columns 3 & 4. Ratio 17.32.
1860	31,510,802	31,178,996	29,442,086	24,973 012	28,530,645	27.208,709
1870	42,813,726	41,915,486	37,376,728	26,890,939	35,098,400	31,921,257
1880	58,171,009	56,349,083	47,449,756	28,956,163	43,178,052	37,450,019
1890	79,036,950	75,752,890	60,237,465	31,279 998	53,117 640	43 936,362
1900	107,387,504	101,838,397	76,471,462	33,681,300	65,345.320	51,546,140
1910	145,907,400	136,906,449	97,080,521	36,268,024	80,387,813	60,473,931
1920	198,244.384	184,030,184	123 243,721	39,053,408	98,893.088	70,948,016
1930	269,354,644	247,427,865	156 457,904	42,052.710	121,658,277	83,236,212
1940	365,972,154	332,629,650	198,623,309	45,282,358	149,664,012	97,652,724
1950	497,246,365	447,159,670	252,152,290	48,760,643	184,116,607	114,566,176

RATIO OF THE INCREASE OF POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES IN SIXTY YEARS.

States and Territories.	*Population.*						
	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Maine	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,335	399,455	501,793	583,169
New-Hampshire	141,899	183,762	214.360	244,161	269,328	284,574	317,976
Vermont	85,416	154,465	217,713	235,764	280,652	291,948	314,120
Massachusetts	378,717	423,245	472,040	523,287	610,408	737,699	994,514
Rhode Island	69,110	69.122	77,031	83,059	97,199	108,830	147,545
Connecticut	238,141	251,002	262,042	275,202	297,675	309,978	370,792
	1,009,823	1,233,315	1,471,891	1,659,808	1,954,717	2,234,822	2,728,116
New-York	340,120	586,756	959,049	1,372,812	1,918,608	2,428,921	3,097,394
New-Jersey	184,139	211,949	245,555	277,575	320,823	373,306	489,555
Pennsylvania	434,373	602,365	810,091	1,049,458	1,348,233	1,724,033	2,311,786
Delaware	59,096	64,273	72,674	72,749	76,748	78,085	91,532
Maryland	319,728	341,548	380,546	407,350	447,040	470,019	583,034
Dis. of Columbia	—	14,093	24,023	33,039	39,834	43,712	51,687
	1,337,456	1,820,984	2,491,938	3,212,983	4,151,286	5,118,076	6,624,988
Virginia	748,308	880,200	974,622	1,065,379	1,211,405	1,239,797	1,421,661
North Carolina	393,751	478,103	555,500	638,829	737,987	753,419	869,039
South Carolina	249,073	345,591	415,115	502.741	581,185	594,398	668,507
Georgia	82,548	162,101	252,433	340,987	516,823	691,392	906,185
Florida	—	—	—	—	34,730	54,477	87,445
	1,473,680	1,865,995	2,197,670	2,547,936	3,082,130	3,333,483	3,952,837
Alabama	—	—	—	127,901	309,527	590,756	771,623
Mississippi	—	8,850	40,352	75,448	136,621	375,651	606,526
Louisiana	—	—	76,556	153,407	215,739	352,411	517,762
Texas	—	—	—	—	—	—	212,592
Arkansas	—	—	—	14,273	30,388	9,574	209,897
Tennessee	35,791	105,602	261,727	422,813	681,904	829,210	1,002,717
	35,791	114,452	378,635	810,258	1,374,179	2,245,602	3,321,117
Missouri	—	—	20,845	66,586	140,455	383,702	682,044
Kentucky	73,077	220,955	406,511	564,317	687,917	779,828	982,405
Ohio	—	45,365	230,760	581,434	937.903	1,519,467	1,980,329
Indiana	—	4,875	24,520	147,178	343,031	685,866	988,416
Illinois	—	—	12,282	55,211	157,445	476,183	851,470
Michigan	—	—	4,762	8,896	31,639	212,267	397,654
Wisconsin	—	—	—	—	—	30,945	305,391
Iowa	—	—	—	—	—	43,112	192,214
	73,077	271,195	699,680	1,423,622	2,298,390	4,131,370	6,379,923
California	—	—	—	—	—	—	92,597
Minnesota	—	—	—	—	—	—	6,077
New-Mexico	—	—	—	—	—	—	61,547
Oregon	—	—	—	—	—	—	13,294
Utah	—	—	—	—	—	—	11,380
	—	—	—				
							184.895
Aggregate	3,929,827	5,305,925	7,239,814	9,638,131	12,866,020	17,069,453	23,191,876

States and Territories.	*Decennial increase.*					
	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Maine	57.16	50.74	30.45	33.89	25.62	16.22
New-Hampshire	29.50	16.65	13.90	10.31	5.66	11.73
Vermont	80.84	40.95	8.29	19.04	4.02	7.59
Massachusetts	11.76	11.53	10.86	16.65	20.85	34.81
Rhode Island	.01	11.44	7.83	17.02	11.97	35.57
Connecticut	5.40	4.40	5.02	8.17	4.13	19.62
	22.13	19.34	12.77	17.77	14.33	22.07
New-York	72.51	63.45	43.14	39.76	26.60	27.52
New-Jersey	15.10	15.86	13.04	15.58	16.36	31.14
Pennsylvania	38.67	34.49	29.55	28.47	27.87	34.09
Delaware	8.76	13.07	.10	5.5	1.74	17.22
Maryland	6.82	11.42	7.04	9.74	5.14	24.04
Dis. of Columbia	—	70.45	37.53	20.57	9.74	18.24
	36.15	36.85	28.94	29.2	23.29	29.44

States and	*Decennial increase, (continued.)*					
Territories.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Virginia	17.63	10.73	9.31	13.7	2.34	14.67
North Carolina	21.42	16.19	15.	15 52	2.09	15.35
South Carolina	38.75	20.12	21.11	15.6	2.28	12.47
Georgia	96.37	55.73	35.08	51.57	33.78	31.07
Florida	—	—	—	—	56.86	60.52
	26.62	17.77	15.94	20.96	8.16	18.58
Alabama	—	—	—	142.	90.86	3062
Mississippi	—	355.95	86.97	81.08	174.96	61.46
Louisiana	—	—	100.39	40.63	63.35	46..9
Texas	—	—	—	—	—	—2
Arkanas	—	—	—	112.91	221.09	115.1
Tennessee	195.05	147.84	61.55	61.28	21.6	20.92
	219.78	230.82	109.66	73.10	63.41	47.89
Missouri	—	—	219.43	110.94	173.18	5 77.7 2
Kentucky	202.36	83.98	38.82	21.9	13.36	2598
Ohio	—	408.67	151.96	61.3	62.	30 .33
Indiana	—	402.97	500.24	133.07	99.94	44.11
Illinois	—	—	349.53	185.17	202.44	78. 81
Michigan	—	—	86 80	255.65	570.9	87.34
Wisconsin	—	—	—	—	—	886.88
Iowa	—	—	—	—	—	345.85
	271.11	156.	103.47	61.45	79.35	54.43
California	—	—	—	—	—	—
Minnesota	—	—	—	—	—	—
New-Mexico	—	—	—	—	—	—
Oregon	—	—	—	—	—	—
Utah	—	—	—	—	—	—
Aggregate	35.01	36.45	33.13	33.49	32.67	35.87

RATIO OF INCREASE IN THE UNITED STATES OF WHITE, FREE COLORED, SLAVES, AND TOTAL POPULATION, SINCE 1790.*

CLASSES.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites	3,172,464	4,304,489	5,862,004	7,861,937	10,537,378	14,195,695	19,553,068
Free Colored	59,466	108,395	186,446	238,156	319,599	386,303	434,495
Slaves	697,897	893,041	1,191,364	1,538,038	2,009,043	2,487,455	3,204,313
Total Free	3,231,930	4,412,884	6,048,450	8,100,093	10,856,977	14,581,998	19,987,563
Total Colored	757,363	1,001,436	1,377,810	1,776,194	2,328,642	2,873,758	3.638,808

	Decennial increase per cent. in					
	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites	35.68	36.18	34.12	34.03	34.72	37.74
Free Colored	82.28	72.00	27.33	34.2	20.87	12.47
Slaves	27.96	33.4	29.10	30.62	23.81	28.82
Total Free	36.54	37.06	33.92	34.03	34.31	37.07
Total Colored	32.23	37.58	28.92	31.10	23.41	26.62

---

* In all of the ratio tables that have been framed in the office, no attention has been paid to the fact that between 1820 and 1830 only nine years and ten months elapsed, nor have the accretions of population, from annexations of new territory, &c., been taken into consideration. These matters are worthy of separate and special attention, for which time does not now admit.

Art. IX.—NEWPAPERS AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

In connection with the statistics of newspapers given in our number for January, we insert the following from *Livingston's Law Reporter*:—

"The origin of newspapers, like that of many institutions important to modern civilization, is to be referred to Italy. The war which the Republic of Venice waged against Solyman II., in Dalmatia, gave rise, in 1563, to the custom in Venice of communicating the military and commercial information received, by written sheets (*notizie scritte*) to be read at a particular place by those desirous to learn the news, who paid for this privilege in a coin, not any longer in use, called *gazetta*—a name which, by degrees, was transferred to the newspaper itself in Italy and France, and passed over into England.[*] A file of these Venetian papers, for sixty years, is still preserved in the Magliabecchi Library at Florence. The first regular paper was a monthly, written, government paper at Venice; and Chalmers, in his life of Ruddiman, informs us that 'a jealous government did not allow a *printed* newspaper; and the Venetian *Gazetta* continued long after the invention of printing, to the close of the sixteenth century, and even to our own days, to be distributed in *manuscript*.' Those who first wrote newspapers were called, by the Italians, *menanti*, because, says Vossius, they intended commonly, by these loose papers, to spread about defamatory reflections, and were therefore prohibited in Italy, by Gregory XIII., in a particular bull, under the name of *Menantes* (from the Latin *minantes*, threatening). Menage derives the name, with more probability, from the Italian *menare*, which signifies 'to lead at large,' or, 'spread afar.' Perhaps it will not be irrelevant, however, for the writer to remark, that it is common for the Mecklenburg peasantry, as he knows from experience, to call the newspaper *de Logenblad* (the lying paper); and the German proverb in use to this day, 'He lies like print,' ('*er lugt wie gedruckt*,') is probably connected with this view of early newspapers.

"The first English genuine newspaper appeared under Elizabeth, in the epoch of the Spanish Armada, of which several, printed when the Spanish fleet was in the English Channel, during the year 1588, are preserved in the British Museum; and it is very curious how much the mode of communicating certain kinds of intelligence in these early papers resemble the forms in use at present. The earliest newspaper is entitled 'The English Mercurie,' which, by *authority*, 'was imprinted at London, by her highness's printer, 1588.' These were, however, but extraordinary gazettes, not regularly published. Periodical papers seem first to have been more generally used by the English during the civil wars of the time of the Commonwealth, to disseminate sentiments of loyalty or resistance. They were called *weekly news-books*. Though *Mercury* was the prevailing title of most, the quaintness which marks the titles of books in that age, is found also in the names of the 'news-books;' for instance, the *Secret Owl*, *Heraclitus Ridens*, the *Weekly Discoverer*, and the *Discoverer Stript Naked*, &c. A catalogue of the Mercuries would exhibit a curious picture of those singular times.

---

[*] Some etymologists have thought the name *gazetta* is to be derived from *gazzera*, a magpie, or, in this case, a chatterer; others from the Latin *gaza*, which, being colloquially lengthened into *gazetta*, would signify a little treasury of news. The Spanish derive it, indeed, from the Latin *gaza* (Greek, *γαζα*), though their newspapers, least of all, deserve the name of treasure. They have a peculiar word, wanting in our idiom, *gazetista*, a lover of the gazette. The German *zeitung* is from the ancient *theidinge* or *theidung* (the English, *tiding*, the Swedish, *tidingar*.)

"We learn from Buckingham's specimens of newspaper literature, that the earliest newspaper established in North America was the *Boston News-Letter*, the first number of which was issued April 24, 1704.

"A comparison of the number of periodicals and inhabitants of different countries, gives the following results:—

"In 1827, there appeared in Great Britain, 483 different newspapers and other periodicals to 23,400,000 inhabitants; in Sweden and Norway, 82 journals to 3,866,000 inhabitants; in the States of the Church, 6 newspapers to 2,598,000 inhabitants, (Stockholm, with 78,000 inhabitants, has 30 journals; Rome, with 154,000, only 3); Denmark, to 1,950,000 inhabitants, has 80 journals, of which 71 are in the Danish language; 23 are devoted to politics; 25 to the sciences. Prussia has 12,416,000 inhabitants, and 288 journals and periodicals. (Berlin has 221,000 inhabitants, and 53 periodical works; Copenhagen has 109,000 inhabitants, and 57 journals.) The Netherlands have 6,143,000 inhabitants, and 150 journals. In the German Confederation, (excluding Austria and Prussia,) there are 13,300,000 inhabitants, and 305 journals; in Saxony, to 1,400,000 inhabitants, 54 newspapers; in Hanover, to 1,550,000 inhabitants, 16 newspapers; in Bavaria, to 3,960,000 inhabitants, 48 newspapers. France, with a population of 32,000,000, has 490 periodical works, (660 printing establishments, 1,500 presses;) in Paris, 81 printing establishments, or 850 presses. In Paris alone, containing 890,000 inhabitants, there are 176 periodical works.

"The following table, arranged for the American Almanac of 1830, is corrected from the *Traveller*, and contains a statement of the number of newspapers published in the colonies at the commencement of the Revolution, and also the number of newspapers and other periodical works in the United States in 1810 and 1828:—

STATES.	1775.	1810.	1828.
Maine	—	—	29
Massachusetts	7	32	78
New-Hampshire	1	12	17
Vermont	—	14	21
Rhode Island	2	7	14
Connecticut	4	11	33
New-York	4	66	161
New-Jersey	—	8	22
Pennsylvania	9	71	185
Delaware	—	2	4
Maryland	2	21	37
District of Columbia	—	6	9
Virginia	2	23	34
North Carolina	2	10	20
South Carolina	3	10	16
Georgia	1	13	18
Florida	—	1	2
Alabama	—	—	10
Mississippi	—	4	6
Louisiana	—	10	9
Tennessee	—	6	8
Kentucky	—	17	23
Ohio	—	14	66
Indiana	—	—	17
Michigan	—	—	2
Illinois	—	—	4
Missouri	—	—	5
Arkansas	—	—	1
Cherokee Nation	—	—	1
Total	37	358	802

"The following is the state of the newspaper press in the United States in 1810, as extracted from a number of the *National Intelligencer:* New-Hampshire, 12 papers, 624,000 circulation; Massachusetts, 32 papers, 2,873,000 circulation; Rhode Island, 7 papers, 332,800 circulation; Connecticut, 11 papers, 657,800 circulation; Vermont, 14 papers, 682,400 circulation; New-York, 66 papers, 4,139,200 circulation; New-Jersey, 8 papers, 332,800 circulation; Pennsylvania, 71 papers, 4,542,200 circulation; Delaware, 2 papers, 166,400 circulation; Maryland, 21 papers, 1,903,200 circulation; District of Columbia, 6 papers, 686,400 circulation; Virginia, 23 papers, 1,289,600 circulation; North Carolina, 10 papers, 416,000 circulation; South Carolina, 10 papers, 842,400 circulation; Georgia, 13 papers, 707,200 circulation; Kentucky, 17 papers, 618,800 circulation; Tennessee, 6 papers, 171,600 circulation; Ohio, 14 papers, 473,200 circulation; Indiana Territory, 1 paper, 15,600 circulation; Mississippi Territory, 4 papers, 83,200 circulation; Orleans Territory, 10 papers, 748,800 circulation; Louisiana Territory, 1 paper, 15,100 circulation. Total for the United States, 559 papers; circulation, 22,222,200.

"The North American colonies, in the year 1720, had only seven newspapers; in 1810, the United States had 359; in 1826, they had 640; in 1830, 1,000, with a population of 13,000,000."

ART. X.—THE COMMERCE OF THE OHIO, AND ITS OBSTRUCTIONS.

[The following paper was prepared by N. W. Thomas, Esq., President of the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce. We append to it the statistics from Colonel Abert's Report, showing the amount expended by the Federal Government for Internal Improvements from 1806 to 1847.]

In answer to the interrogatory requiring the number of vessels which pass annually through the Louisville Canal, I can only give you the average number from the last year's report. The number for this year cannot be ascertained until the company make their yearly statement of their business. A fair estimate of the average number of steamboats passing the Canal, annually, may be put down at 1,450, with a tonnage, Custom-House measurement, of 460,000 tons, and a capacity to carry 100,000 tons additional. The number of flat-boats may be estimated at 480, with a tonnage of 50,000 tons; making the aggregate tonnage of vessels passing the Canal, annually, about 510,000 tons.

It is impossible to give anything like a definite answer to the question "relative to the injury which the commerce of this city sustains by reason of the obstruction at the Falls of the Ohio." There is no way of ascertaining the amount which would recompense the various branches of trade and commerce, for the losses, delays, and injuries which they constantly sustain at this point. In addition to a fixed amount of toll, the commerce of the river suffers from delays, low water, portage around the Falls, change of vessels, and many other losses, which in the aggregate would be estimated variously by different persons. A low estimate, however, may be put down at 150,000 dollars as an annual loss to the trade of Cincinnati.

In a report made to Congress, in 1846, the estimated loss to the commerce of the Ohio River, by the obstructions at the Falls, was estimated at the enormous sum, annually, of $803,643.

An estimate made now, on the same basis of calculation, would give a much larger sum.

To estimate the injury to the commerce of the country, by the obstruction at the Falls, and the inefficiency of the present Canal, we should take into view the prospective advantages and increase of trade which would be gained by an enlarged canal, and an uninterrupted navigation for all classes of boats.

The impetus thus given to the commerce of the Upper Ohio would, in a few years, double the present estimate of exports and imports of this city, and in the same ratio, increase the commerce of all parts of the Mississippi Valley, connected with the trade of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers.

Nature has intended these great natural channels for the conveyance of the commerce of the Great West. They are the avenues to which all plains incline, and where, by the aid of steam applied to vessels, a large portion of the trade and movement of the country must always be found. All other channels of communication must contribute and constantly increase the commerce on these great natural thoroughfares.

I inclose you a statement, in pamphlet form, of the Trade and Commerce of Cincinnati, published by the Chamber of Commerce, for the year ending 31st August, 1853.

By reference to this, you will see that the imports of the city for the last year are put down in the aggregate at $51,230,644, and the exports at $36,266,108.

The number of steamboat arrivals at the port of Cincinnati during the year, 3,630. Departures, 4,113. The number of flat-boats arrived, 5,880.

Twenty-five new steamboats were built with a tonnage, Custom-House measurement, of 10,252 tons. The actual capacity being 33 per cent. additional. Many other important details of the commerce of the city will be found in this statement, which cannot be given in this communication.

The following Report was prepared by the Chamber of Commerce of Cincinnati, and embraces much valuable material upon the commerce of the Ohio, etc. We give it entire:—

FALLS OF THE OHIO.

The importance of a Canal around the Falls of the Ohio was early appreciated by the citizens of the West; and long before steamboats were in use, it was obvious that this noble river was to become the great arterial circulation for the commerce of the Mississippi Valley. In tracing the Ohio to its source, regarding the Alleghany River as its proper continuation, we find that a boat, at certain times, may start with sufficient water from a point within seven miles of Lake Erie, and perform a voyage of 2,400 miles, to the Gulf of Mexico. meeting with few natural obstructions in the whole distance, excepting the Rapids, or Falls, at Louisville. Here is the first great impediment to the navigation of the Ohio, and in low water an insurmountable barrier is presented by the exposure of a ledge of limestone rock, entirely across the river, extending about one mile, over which the river is increased in velocity, and causes rapids with a fall of twenty-five feet within that distance. The attention of Congress was called to this obstruction as early as the year 1805, when Mr. Dayton, of New-Jersey, in a report, recommended an appropriation for a Canal around the Falls of the Ohio.

In 1806, another report recommended the appropriation, and advocated "the immense utility of the proposed Canal, which no one could doubt who reflects for a moment upon the vast extent of fertile country which is watered by the Ohio and its tributary streams, and upon the incalculable amount of produce which must, of course, necessarily finds its way to market by descending that river, and encountering the danger and difficulty of passing its Rapids."

In 1807, Henry Clay, then a Senator from Kentucky, reported "that the work is one of national importance; that the immense country on the Ohio and its waters above the Rapids, in seeking a market for its surplus products, has to encounter the obstructions in the navigation of that stream which they present, and there can be no doubt that both policy and power combine in favor of promoting an undertaking by which the property of the Government is to be incidentally benefited."

In 1808, Albert Gallatin, as Secretary of the Treasury, reported on the importance of a Canal around the Falls of the Ohio, and called the attention of the Legislature of Kentucky, and the inhabitants of the Western country generally, to the opening of a Canal at the Falls.

In 1816, Mr. Morrow, of Ohio, from a select committee of the Senate, reported that "The great works which are calculated for national advantage, either in a military or commercial view, their execution must depend on the General Government. Wherever great obstacles are to be overcome, great powers must be employed. To such works, the means of associated individuals are incompetent, and the particular States may not have an interest in the execution of a work of the most essential advantage to other parts of the community. In other cases, where interest might be sufficiently operative, the means or the power may not be possessed, their territorial jurisdiction being limited short of the whole extent of the work. Among many other objects of improvements in inland navigation, coming within the above description, a Canal around the Falls of the Ohio appears to be recommended by its importance to the attention of Congress."

Mr. Wilson, of Pensylvania, in 1817, reported the necessity of lockage, or some other improvement, at the Falls of the Ohio.

In 1817, Mr. Lacock, of Pennsylvania, made report in the Senate, upon the subject of improvements of a national character, and "referred to the improvement of the Ohio River, more particularly the Falls at Louisville."

In 1822, Mr. Hemphill, of Pennsylvania, from a select committee of the House of Representatives, stated, "that the national objects which, in the opinion of the committee, claim the first attention of Government, is a Canal to connect the waters of the Ohio above with those below the Falls at Louisville."

In 1824, Mr. Wickliffe, of Kentucky, from a committee of the House of Representatives, reported "That the improvement of the navigation of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, which wash the territories of twelve States, cannot be a local, but a national object; one to which the exercise of the power of Congress to regulate commerce among the several States, is invited, by every consideration, whether of a commercial or a military character."

"The nature and magnitude of the obstruction at the Falls of the Ohio are too well and generally known to require of the committee a particular description. A Canal around the Falls, at this place, would be of great utility to all that part of the Union, composed of part of New-York, Western Pennsylvania, and Virginia, the States of Ohio, Kentucky, and Indiana. Of the practicability of this improvement, and of its absolute necessity, in justice to an industrious and enterprising population, the committee are satisfied. Its national importance requires that the General Government should aid in its execution."

These authorities have been referred to for the purpose of showing the numerous applications made to the General Government, and the settled opinion in times past regarding the nationality of the work; showing, also, the absence of all useful legislation from that time to this in perfecting those resolves, or affording to the petitioners any redress for the grievances so often presented to their rulers.

It will thus be seen, that it is now nearly fifty years since this Government has been asked to remove the obstructions at the Falls of the Ohio. Memorials, resolutions, and petitions have been presented throughout the greater part of this period for this object. The Legislatures of the different States interested; the navigators of the stream; the consumers of the products transported by its tonnage; and, in short, the citizens of almost every portion of the Union, have been annually supplicating the national councils to afford them relief. The subject has been discussed over and over again; resolutions, reports, and bills have been submitted in favor of the work, yet nothing has been done, with the exception of the subscription by the Government, to the stock of a private company, to aid in the construction of an inefficient work, unsuited to the commerce of the river, and using that stock under the charter of the State of Kentucky, in imposing an exorbitant tax upon commerce, until, by usurious interest, the amount of the original subscription of 230,000 dollars, has swelled in the hands of the Government to the enormous sum of 1,300,000 dollars, all wrung from the commerce of the river, in passing a natural obstruction, guarded by toll-gates, under the control of a private corporation, and the General Government a willing participator in any rules or regulations which the company have enacted, for the purpose of promoting the private interests of the stockholders.

Since the completion of the Canal in 1832, the people of the West have never ceased to seek relief, by presenting their memorials and petitions to Congress. They have also organized, under State authority, private companies, and made surveys for another Canal; but fearing to interrupt the navigation of a great national highway, and constantly depending on the Government affording relief, these private companies suspended their work, from time to time, as they were met at almost every session of Congress by a resolution for a national survey, or, some bill passed, to the first or second reading, authorizing a national Canal. Thus, anticipating action by the Government, and unwilling to trespass upon the national rights, nothing has been done.

No other interest or locality in this country has been more strenuously presented to the national councils for relief, and no other interest or locality has been treated with such neglect and contempt.

It has been stated that the present canal is inefficient, and unsuited to the commerce of the river. This fact is well known to every one interested in the commerce of the West, and it must be also apparent, that in proportion to the growth and increase of commerce on the Ohio, in that proportion will the disadvantages be magnified, and the injuries increased, until another avenue, suited to the commerce of the country, shall be provided.

The present canal was projected in 1825, when the commerce of the West was in its infancy, and when it was thought that locks of 180 feet in length would be sufficiently large for the passage of boats. It is now ascertained that the enormous increase of the trade of the West requires boats of 300 feet in length, to make the navigation of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers profitable to owners of vessels. Therefore, the present canal has become useless for the passage of those vessels which are to be engaged in the trade, to ports below the Falls. The vessels, also, which are intended for the passage through the canal, must conform in size and model to the locks, which compels the navigators of such vessels to labor under many disadvantages, in competing with the larger class of vessels navigating between the Falls and New-Orleans.

When these disadvantages attending the construction of vessels are added to the delays in passing the canal, and the toll of fifty cents per ton for every passage, with other incidental expenses, it is found that a vessel, in the trade between St. Louis and Cincinnati will, in five or six years, pay a sum equal to the original cost; thus making a contribution of 16 per cent. annually on the capital invested; which is chiefly paid to the Government, as the principal stockholder, in exorbitant charges, for passing a natural obstruction in a great national highway, acknowledged to be under marine law, and entirely under national control.

But, whilst these heavy burdens have been the subject of continual discontent, the Mississippi Valley, with more than half the population of the whole Union, has also furnished to the treasury of the General Government hundreds of millions of dollars, drawn from this portion of the Union, by the sales of public lands, and in paying, annually, more than half the import duties of the country, in the consumption of foreign goods, all of which, with little exception, has been lavishly expended by the nation, in the support of the army and navy, and in the erection of dry-docks, forts, arsenals, light-houses, and every other species of improvement asked for by the Atlantic States.

(*To be continued.*)

Art. XI.—EDITORIAL, BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

SOUTHERN AGRICULTURAL CONVENTION.

We adverted in our last number to this interesting body, which met in Columbia, South Carolina, and was in session several days, at which we had the pleasure of being present. Colonel R. F. W. Allston was made President, and N. B. Cloud, Secretary. We make a condensation of the proceedings as they appear in that invaluable journal, the *Cotton-Planter*, edited by Dr. Cloud, and published at Montgomery, Alabama.

Dr. Bachman and Edwin Ruffin were elected Honorary Members. Dr. Bachman delivered an address upon the Natural Sciences, as connected with agriculture; Colonel A. G. Summer read a paper on Fruit Culture at the South, prepared by J. Van Buren of Georgia; Mr. H. W. Ravenel, an address on Botany and Agriculture; Colonel Isaac Croom, of Alabama, on Clovers and Grasses at the South; Dr. A. A. Lipscomb, of Alabama, on Progress of Southern Mind; Essay from Colonel De Forest, of Mobile, on Native Trees of the South, and Landscape Gardening; Judge McGehee, of Florida, on Black Seed Cotton; Colonel Allston delivered an address on Sea-Coasts and their Management; Judge J. B. O'Neal, on the Treatment of Slaves; J. D. B. De Bow, on Cotton, agriculturally, commercially, and politically; Essay from Dr. W. A. Swasey, of Miss., on Fruit Culture at the South; from A. J. Foreman, on Florida or Spanish Tobacco; Address by Professor Brumby, on Agricultural Chemistry, etc.

The States of Georgia, Alabama, and Virginia were represented, and six agricultural societies in South Carolina.

Colonel Croom introduced the following resolutions, which were elaborately advocated by himself and Colonel Summer, and referred to the Executive Council to take advice of citizens in different States, and report at the next meeting of the Convention :—

Whereas, the establishment of a Central Agricultural College, which shall provide the best means of instruction in all the sciences and learning pertaining to agriculture and its kindred arts, is indispensable for accomplishing one of the great purposes of this Association, which is the reformation and improvement of Southern Agriculture : Therefore,

1. *Resolved*, That a Southern Central Agricultural College shall be established as early as practicable, subject to the control and direction of this Association, and to be located at such place as may be selected at the next or some subsequent annual meeting of the same

2. *Resolved*, That to aid in accomplishing this great work, the Secretary of our Association be required to receive the subscription of the members and all other persons disposed to contribute, which shall be paid in such proportions, and at such times, as shall be designated by some future annual meeting of the Association.

3. *Resolved*, That the Executive Council of this Association be authorized and required to appoint at their discretion such committees and individuals in the Southern States, to solicit subscriptions for the purpose and on the conditions before specified.

4. *Resolved*, That when the sum of five hundred thousand dollars shall be subscribed, the Association shall, at its first annual meeting thereafter, locate the College, and provide for the collection of the subscription, and the erection of one or more suitable buildings, so far as their means will admit.

5. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this meeting, that the Association should, at its next annual meeting, or so soon thereafter as the amount of subscription shall amount to five hundred thousand dollars, memorialize Congress, and the Legislatures of the Southern States, for the purpose of obtaining their aid in the completion of a work which involves so much of the welfare, not only of the South, but of the entire confederacy.

Colonel A. G. Summer offered the following resolutions. For ourselves, we shall be most happy to publish any of the papers that may be forwarded to us by the Secretary, and in every other way promote the great ends of this Association.

Resolved, That in consideration of the limited means of the Association as yet, and the importance to the industrial interest of the planting States, of the information contained in the several Addresses and Essays already on hand, this Association most respectfully requests the Editors and Publishers of the several Agricultural and Industrial papers of the planting States to engage in their publication, that said information may, at an early day, be laid before the planting community.

Resolved further, That the Secretary open a correspondence immediately with said Editors and Publishers, distributing the Addresses and Essays to such as will engage in their publication.

On motion of J. D. B De Bow, the following resolution was adopted by the Association :—

Resolved, That this Association unite in the suggestion of the Virginia Agricultural Association upon the subject of Guano, and that a committee of five be appointed by the President to wait upon the Executive of the United States, to request such action as may be within the sphere of the government, and may be deemed advisable and proper to relieve the planting interest from the present monopoly, which will enlarge the consumption of the article.

The committee appointed to carry out the objects of the above resolution consists of the following gentlemen :—

Prof. J. D. B. De Bow, of Louisiana ; Hon. Robert Toombs, of Georgia ; Dr. W. C. Daniell, of Georgia ; Edmund Ruffin, of Virginia ; Gov. H. W. Collier, of Alabama.

On motion of Dr. Daniell, of Georgia, the President of this meeting, the Hon. R. F. W. Allston, was made Chairman of this Committee.

On motion of Dr. Daniell, of Georgia,

Resolved, That the next annual meeting of this Association be held with the North Carolina State Fair at Raleigh, in October next.

By the Executive Council—a quorum of whom being present at Columbia—the next Spring or Semi-Annual Meeting was appointed to be holden at Jackson, Miss., to commence the second Monday in May next.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

WE have had upon our table for some time, in pamphlet form, a speech delivered by F. D. CONRAD, Esq., in the Convention of Louisiana, on the question of apportioning the Representation of the State. The ability of the production, added to the interesting and important character of the subject discussed, would warrant us in analyzing and extracting largely from it, but at this moment neither time nor space admit, which we very much regret. Mr. CONRAD argues with boldness and force against the absorption of political power in great cities, and the control they are thus enabled to exercise over the destinies of the State. He has perceived and pointed out more clearly than any one else, the dangers to sound and well-regulated government, which are the inevitable result, and the speech is worthy, on that account, of study and reflection. The theory of our government and its just administration depend upon the conservative influence of the country, whose population is fixed and steady, and homogeneous. It is always safe to leave the balance of power in the agricultural classes, relying that the municipal regulations of cities will prove to be ample for all purposes of development and power. The interests of the cities themselves require this, and there can be no apprehension that they will not be sufficiently objects of pride and favor with the States. It is only when they have demanded a *controlling* influence that animosities have been

awakened, and the bitterest hostilities between the country and the city. This is altogether unnecessary and unwise.

But we will introduce one extract from Mr. Connad's pamphlet, which presents the whole of his argument:—

> " The people of the country, by which I mean the whole State, outside of the city, the agricultural portions of the State, the farmers, planters, mechanics and working classes of the country, will never be satisfied with the existing and increasing power of the city in the Legislature of the State ; a power which promises to be overwhelming. This power not only consists in her numerical vote in the House, which of itself promises to absorb the absolute voting power of the House ; but, sir, added to this, will be the moral power of her representation, acting with the energy that a united will confers on a body, operating against others. distracted by the jealousies of conflicting interests, real or supposed. Add to this the power of the city press, and the unity and immediate action of the city population, on every subject of public interest, and you will find introduced into the Legislature, a moral power from the city which will be overwhelming ; and which, if added to the prospective numerical vote of her delegation, will leave no alternative to the country but unresisting submission to the Legislative will of the city, whenever she sees fit to exercise the power. Mr. President, from our knowledge of the human heart—its selfishness, and the workings of its passions, and from the history of mankind—we are taught that exorbitant power, wherever lodged, from the probability of its abuse, is highly dangerous ; but when lodged in the hands of the numbers, which act together in the comparatively small space of a large city, the power can be brought so speedily, energetically, and effectively into action, as to be irresistible, if not counteracted by the moral effect of a dense, and intelligent country population, or by some counteracting wheel in the machinery of Government. I think, Mr. President, that the history of the world equally proves that no country has been successfully governed, when the predominating power of the government, has not been placed in the hands of the farmers and planters, and the other working classes of the country portion of the State. This is the numerous,the great the bone and sinew interest of the State. In proof of this proposition, let us resort to the experience of history. Let us recur to some of the features of ancient governments ; let us refer to those the most renowned, the most highly civilized—to those which have reached the highest attainments of taste—where literature and the arts of poetry, and eloquence, and some of the principles of good polity, have rendered them immortal—the governments of Athens, and of Rome—of that Rome, which conferred upon the civilized world the inappreciable and inestimable boon of the best legal polity with which it has ever yet been blessed. But will the statesman ever point to the political government of these renowned States as models for imitation ? Will his admiration ever be excited by the turbulent, haughty, conquering, tyrannical character of their administration, when it passed the limits of their municipal walls ? The legal polity of Rome doubtlessly blessed an immense empire, throughout its whole extent ; but that empire, outside the walls of the renowned city, had no due share in the *political* power of the State. The influence of the agricultural portion of the State—of the tillers of the soil—was not felt ; that main conservative element of good government was wanting. Politically, it was a bad government. Let us, Mr. President, in pursuit of more familiar illustrations, recur to the history of more modern times. Let us take the example of modern France : What a solemn and instructive lesson does it not afford ! what might not now have been unfortunate France, *politically*, but for the political sway for half a century past, of the city of Paris, in every effort at political progress and regeneration made by that great and glorious people ? The balance of France—rural, agricultural France—has ever been annihilated. Even when they seemed to possess power, they had it not. Paris either destroyed, or directed as she pleased, their influence in the State. In matters of taste, science, fashion and government, Paris is, and ever has been, France. And what has been the result—what is the present aspect of that agitated and insulted people ? Let her present position constitute the answer. Bearing the name of a Republic, she groans under a practical despotism. about, probably, to terminate in an actual and acknowledged one. But it may be inquired, has not London the same sway in England ? I answer, no ; and for the reason, that the political power of England, unlike what exists in France, is lodged in agricultural hands ; and this has been achieved by the legislative power of the House of Lords, who are all agriculturists—by the constitution of the House of Commons itself, a majority of whom are agriculturists—by the law of primogeniture, which only applies to landed property, and by the difficulties thrown by the laws of that country, around the alienation of landed property. The agriculturists of England, through the operation of these causes, possess the predominating legislative power of the State. But, Mr. President, let us descend from these distant and rather lofty citations, and look for our examples to the operation of causes in the history of States governed by systems, more congenial to our taste, and our political philosophy ; albeit, our statesmen have never been ashamed to recognize a good principle, even if found in the polity of Monarchical England. But, sir, I prefer, where the same principle can be found, to cite it in the successful history of a Republic. I prefer beholding its operation in the march of the great Model Modern Republic. It brings one nearer home to the practical operation of the principle, in States entirely analogous to our own. I refer to the States constituting our own beloved country.
>
> " In every State in this Union, except the State of Louisiana, the legislative power of the State rests permanently and securely in the hands of the planters, and farmers, and working classes, of the country portion of the State ? I ask if there exists a State north of the Potomac whose legislative and political power is not lodged in the hands of the agriculturists—in the yeomanry of the country. I will cite the States where, on account of their large cities, there may exist the most doubt about the truth of the allegation. What is, or ever can be, the power of the representation of the city of Boston in the Legislature of Massachusetts, compared to that which represents the agriculturists of that State ? And may not the same be said of the city of New-York, relatively, to the country portion of the great State of New-York ; of Philadelphia, relatively, to the whole State of Pennsylvania ? The dense voting agricultural population of these great States effectively checking the otherwise exorbitant legislative power of their large cities

"Well, Mr. President, let us repair to the States south of the Potomac—the slaveholding States, and what do we behold here? Is there any danger in this respect, except for the peculiar State of Louisiana? The large cities in the Southern States, with the exception of New-Orleans, even with every prospect of increase, are scarcely of populous dimensions sufficient to excite apprehension in this respect. What has the large white, voting, agricultural population of the State of Virginia to fear from the present or prospective influence of the city of Richmond? or that of Carolina from Charleston, or Kentucky from Louisville, or Alabama from Mobile? To look at the census of the white population of Maryland, one would have supposed that Maryland need have no fear on this point. But the agricultural people of Maryland did not so think. They, entertaining a lively fear on this subject, against the city of Baltimore, took (as I am just advised by one of my colleagues) care to provide against the apprehended evil, by ample provision in their Constitution—not, Mr. President, by the principle of total population, but by one, deemed by my city friends far more objectionable—by the expedient of absolute restriction.

"Now, Mr. President, let us look upon the position of our own State. Let gentlemen cast their eyes upon the census of our population. Look at the relative population of the city and the country portion of the State. Do they not, in the contemplation, find cause for the liveliest apprehension? Do they not perceive that at the next apportionment, New-Orleans will, under the existing basis, have probably thirty-five members out of ninety-eight of the House of Representatives; and that in fifteen years she may have fifty—thus absorbing the whole numerical power of the House of Representatives? Then, Mr. President, let them reflect that the Crescent City is not only the commercial capital of Louisiana, but the commercial emporium of a dozen other States—many of them non-slaveholding States. If not yet satisfied, let them carry their contemplation still further, and behold the great future—the prospective grandeur of this favored city. Her singular and unparalleled position in the world—in the present condition of that world—central to the whole commerce of the globe, as borne on the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific—as proceeding from Europe, or from Asia—and from Labrador on the broad North, to Terra del Fuego in the two Americas. Are gentlemen not alarmed at this aggrandizement of the city in monetary, commercial, and moral strength, at this wonderfully situated commercial capital? Think they not, that from this unparalleled array of power which awaits the city, that politically New-Orleans will be Louisiana—Louisiana, governing and controlling, as she pleases the destinies of the State?"

Poems of Dryden. 5 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. Edited by F. J. Child, of Harvard College. These are others of the series of the British Poets, now in course of publication by this enterprising house. We have already mentioned the issues of Butler, Collins, Cowper, Goldsmith, Gray, Milton, Parnell, Prior, Thomson. The edition embraces all that is of general interest and permanent value in English Poetry, from Chaucer to Wordsworth. The whole works of the most distinguished authors will be given, and selections from the writings of the minor poets. Several volumes of fugitive and anonymous poetry will be added, besides what may be taken from the publications of Ritson, Percy, Ellis, Brydges, Park, &c., of the Percy Society, and other Printing Clubs. Particular care will be bestowed on Chaucer, and on the English and Scotch Ballad Poetry. Pains will be taken to secure a correct text, and each work will be accompanied with biographical, historical, and critical notices, and with glossaries, where such assistance is needed. An edition conducted on these principles will, it is thought, deserve to be called, in all essential respects, a complete collection of the English Poets.

Essays on Philosophical Writers and other Men of Letters, by Thomas De Quincey; in 2 vols. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields, 1854. The volumes, which are neat duodecimo, embrace sketches of Sir William Hamilton, Sir James McIntosh, Kant, Herder, Paul Richter, Lessing, Bentley, Dr. Parr. All of the writings of De Quincey have high position with scholars. We may mention, "Confessions of an Opium Eater," "Biographical Essays," "The Cæsars," "Literary Reminiscences," "Miscellaneous Papers," "Essays on the Poets," "Critical Essays," etc.

Outlines of a Mechanical Theory of Storms; containing the true law of Lunar Influence, with Practical Directions to the Navigator in regard to Weather, etc., by F. Basnett. New-York: D. Appleton & Co., 1854. The author says, "Step by step" he "became confirmed in his doubts of the soundness of many modern theories." The work is a very bold movement in the direction of philosophical skepticism, and is both ably and ingeniously executed. We commend it to the attention of the scientific and the curious.

Light on the Dark River; or, Memorials of Mrs. Henrietta A. L. Hamlin, Missionary in Turkey, by Margarette W. Lawrence. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields, 1854.

Art of Prolonging Life, by Hufeland, edited by Erasmus Wilson. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields, 1854. The work was originally published in German, and translated into English in 1797. It was the employment of eight years of the leisure hours of the erudite Hufeland. We have read it with great interest and instruction.

Civil Liberty and Self-Government, by Francis Lieber, LL.D. We have before noticed at length these valuable volumes, the contribution of one of the most learned men and accomplished scholars in the country. It is hardly necessary for us to repeat our commendation of Dr. Lieber's labors, nor to urge them upon the attention of the reading public. The present work deserves, and will receive, a wide circulation.

Haps and Mishaps; or, a Tour in Europe. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Field Handsomely bound and issued, by Grace Greenwood. The literary reputation of the author stands high with a great many persons, and she seems in some measure to be a popular favorite at the North. Her book embraces the usual incidents of European travel from London to Rome, etc. It is very readable and interesting.

Historical Collections of Georgia. New-York: Pudney & Russell, 1854. The author, Rev. George White, is well known for his valuable work upon the Statistics of Georgia, and he is, indeed, a most laborious and indefatigable student in all of the musty records and documents of his State, as well as a pains-taking collector of facts, traditions, anecdotes, etc., relating to the history or antiquities of Georgia. The volume is embellished by one hundred engravings of buildings, relics of antiquity, historic localities, natural scenery, portraits of distinguished men, etc. The publishers, Pudney & Russell, have spared no pains in making the work a specimen of very high art.

Index to Periodical Literature, by W. J. Poole, A.M., Librarian of the Boston Mercantile Library Association. New-York: Charles B. Norton. The volume has been noticed in our late numbers. It is very complete for nearly all of the American and foreign periodicals, not only indexing the articles, but, as far as possible, giving the names of the authors. Every library should contain a copy.

New-Orleans Medical Journal. The January number of this journal comes to us with the usual editorial title of Dr. Hester. Alas! the hand which prepared a part of this number was cold in death before the work had half progressed, and the completion devolved upon a friend and co-laborer, Dr. E. D. Fenner. Poor Hester! We saw him a few months ago, buoyant in health and spirits, and with a fair and tender bride upon his arm. We had known him and loved him long. Our mutual editorial labors strengthened the bonds of sympathy and interest between us. Our Journals at New-Orleans were encountering, at the same time, the same difficulties and discouragements, and passing the same trying ordeals. Labor and perseverance had crowned us both with a measure of success. The link is broken. The kindly heart of our friend is stilled in death. His toil is ended ere its results could be enjoyed! Sad lesson this. The sands are running out for us all—too fast—too fast!

In his touching and noble biographical sketch, Dr. Fenner pays a deserved tribute to the merits of the deceased, and to that friendship which has subsisted for many years between them. Together had they established, long ago, the very journal in which the biography appears. Worthy successor to its charge will be our friend Fenner. We make a brief extract from the memoir:

"Our own acquaintance with the deceased does not extend so far back; but we may say, that for the last twelve years he has been our intimate friend and companion. We have struggled together in adversity, and enjoyed together such pleasures as we were able to find among the rugged walks of life. We have worked together in the great cause of medical science and literature, which enchained alike our ambition and our energies, and we both had the gratification to see our efforts crowned with some degree of success. Now he comes to an untimely end—snatched away at the meridian of life, and in the full development of his fine mental powers. By the force of his talents and indomitable energy, unaided by wealthy friends his proud spirit scorned to court, he made himself one of the first physicians of New-Orleans."

CINCINNATI.

We had the pleasure, in February, of visiting Cincinnati for a few days, and were struck, as every stranger must be, with the marvellous energy and progress which it is displaying. Already the population is estimated at 150,000 or 160,000, against 45,000 in 1840, and 115,000 in 1850. We visited, among other places, the halls of the Mercantile Association, with its splendid library and its admirable reading-room. This institution is doing brave things for the development of Western culture, and the improvement of the mercantile classes. An annual series of lectures is provided for. We congratulate the Society upon its progress.

Among the useful citizens of Cincinnati whose acquaintance we had the satisfaction of making, was Nicholas Longworth. We inspected his magnificent wine cellars and buildings, and tested the virtues of some of their contents. We have before given many of the results of the labors of Mr. Longworth in our Review, but cannot forbear a few more particulars, for which we are indebted to a letter-writer :—

> The Ohio river is termed the "Rhine of America," and has gained this appellation through the instrumentality of Mr. Nicholas Longworth, the pioneer in this branch of horticulture in the United States. He has now 150 acres of vineyard under cultivation, and owns three wine cellars, where wines are stored for fermentation and prepared for market, one of which contains 140,000 bottles. Dr. L. is seventy years of age, but is as vigorous, and performs as much labor, as many in the prime of manhood He has accumulated an immense property, his taxes the last year having amounted to $17,000, and which are said to be larger than are assessed upon any other man in the country, William B. Astor, and perhaps one or two others, excepted. He has long been a patron of the fine arts, and the parlors of his residence are enriched with rare collections both from nature and art. Included in the latter is an exquisite bust in marble, the first of Powers' productions. Mr. L. early discovered the genius of Powers, and lent his aid in its development. Of late years his attention has been chiefly absorbed by the grape culture. For thirty years he experimented with foreign grapes, with a view to their acclimation in the United States. Six thousand vines of the best Madeira wine grapes, and seven thousand from the mountains of Jura, in France, besides others from the vicinity of Paris and Bordeaux, were procured, but were all thrown away after a protracted trial, being found inferior to the Catawba, a native of North Carolina. Near two hundred varieties of grape have been tested, but the two best are found to be the Catawba and the Herbemont, which makes a wine similar to the Spanish Manzanilla, and which is to be more extensively cultivated than heretofore.

COMMERCIAL CONVENTION OF THE SOUTHERN AND WESTERN STATES.

This Convention will be held at Charleston, S. C., on the second Monday in April next, and will consist of large and able delegations from most of the States included in its action. The Committee at Charleston have already issued circular letters, and great pains will be taken to secure such attendance as will be most efficient in promoting the objects of the Convention. The citizens of Charleston well know how to task their hospitalities upon an occasion like this—and such hospitalities! We hope that thousands of Southern and Western citizens will be attracted to the metropolis of the Palmetto State. April is a delightful month in Charleston. We bespeak much enjoyment for all.

NOTE.

In our next number we shall publish some notes upon the subject of the Yellow Fever in New-Orleans, prepared by Dr. McFarlane, in vindication of his theory, which has been so much canvassed. The Doctor is an old and estimable physician of New-Orleans, and we need not say that it gave us great pain that a contributor in the Review, whose article we had not closely read before its publication, should have indulged a seeming and undeserved personality in regard to him. The writer himself now regrets it as much as we do.

DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL

OF

Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, Internal Improvements,
Statistics, etc., etc.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

VOL. XVI. APRIL, 1854. No. 4.

Art. I.—COTTON TRADE OF THE WORLD—1853.*

In presenting to the reader the statistics of the cotton trade for the past year, we are compelled, by unavoidable circumstances, to omit any remarks or suggestions they might present. The figures, however, will not be dry or uninteresting, so numerous and varied are the interests connected with this branch of our agriculture and commerce.

CONSUMPTION.

In England, the demand for 1853 has been less than for the preceding year, but only a little less. In the first half of the year, the amount worked up by the mills was really larger than in 1852; but the Turkish troubles and the high price of corn have reduced the consumption very considerably. The Liverpool deliveries to the trade, which constitute more than 95 per cent. of the whole purchases of the manufacturers, have been for the two years as follows:—

	Liverpool Delivery.		Weekly Consumption.	
	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
May 6	683,000	630,000	38,000	35,000
June 3	833,270	870,140	37,900	39,500
July 1	989,550	1,000,610	38,100	38,400
August 5	1,202.650	1,194.400	38,800	38,500
September 2	1,306,420	1,340,000	37,300	38,400
October 7	1,429,740	1,520,040	35,700	38,000
November 4	1,545,250	1,701,470	35,100	38,700
" 11	1,578,150	1,718,700	35,100	38,200
" 18	1,609,500	1,731,100	35,000	37,600

For the whole year, the consumption of Great Britain for

---

* By Professor McCay, in *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine*.

1852 was 1,861,200 bales, against 1,663,400 for 1851, and 1,514,500 for 1852, and 1,474,420 for the average of the five preceding years. The falling off for 1854 is not so great as would appear by the reported deliveries, since the stocks in the hands of the manufacturers were estimated to be 50,000 bales more than usual on the first of January last, and at the present time they are supposed to be uncommonly low.

The demand for the coming year must decline. The high price of food must seriously interfere with the domestic consumption of Great Britain. When the cost of the English quarter of wheat is now (according to the average of the 12th of November) 73s. 7d. against 40s. for 1852, the portion of their wages which the laborer and artisan can spare for clothing is much diminished. The scarcity of money, as indicated by an advance in the rate of interest from 2 to 5 per cent., must also discourage the wants of the home trade. The favorable circumstances, such as the high price of iron, the general advance in wages, the abundance of work for the laborer, the diminution in the number of paupers, will be alike operative for both years. The export trade will be seriously embarrassed by the war between Turkey and Russia. The calicoes sent to Turkey and the Levant, including the plain, printed, and dyed, approach 100,000,000 yards per annum, which is 10 or 12 per cent. of the whole export. The cotton yarn is 7 or 8 per cent. The calicoes bought by Russia are few, but the yarn is nearly as much as that sent to Turkey. The demand from both these countries must be very much decreased by the war. From Austria and the other German States, a decline must be expected from the same cause. The revolution in China will seriously interrupt the exports to that country. The cotton cloths sold by Great Britain alone to this populous empire are larger than what is taken by Russia and Turkey together. The possession of Nankin, and the control of the great canal by the rebels; the occupation of Amoy and Shanghai, two of the five open ports, by lawless usurpers and robbers, in whom the merchants place no confidence; the famine at Pekin, and the alarm and distrust at Canton, will largely curtail the English exports to the Celestial Empire. From Australia and India, the United States and Canada, no falling off may be anticipated; but if we notice the very large business done with these important countries for the year 1853, no increase can be expected for 1854. The failure of the harvests in Lombardy, France, and Germany, and the high price of food in all parts of the Continent of Europe, will lessen the demand for English cottons. Everywhere, both at home and abroad, the prospects of the English manufacturers are discouraging.

Under these circumstances, it may be expected that the increase in the consumption of 1852 and 1853 over previous years will be entirely lost, and that the wants of Great Britain for 1854 will not much exceed the average of 1849, 1850, and 1851, which was 1,589,400 bales. It may reach 1,700,000, but its probable limit is 1,600,000 bales.

In France, the consumption for 1853 is nearly as large as for 1852, and both are decidedly above those of previous years. The deliveries at Havre up to the 16th of November were 349,045 bales, against 367,587 for 1852, and 275,764 for 1851. Our exports to France for 1852 and 1853 have been 421,375 and 426,728 bales; but the stocks on the 16th of November were 36,716 bales in excess of last year, and 37,200 bales over 1851. This would indicate a probable consumption of American cotton for the present year of 390,000 bales; but on account of the unfavorable circumstances at the close of the year, this amount will scarcely be attained. The very great deficiency of the French harvest will lessen the demand for 1854; but, as past experience shows that the consumption in the French factories is much more regular than in England, the wants for the coming year of American cotton will not probably fall below 350,000 bales.

The demand for United States cotton on the Continent of Europe has not declined for the year 1853. Our exports to those countries are larger than ever before, and the same is true of the English exports. Ours have been 364,812 bales, against 353,522 for 1852, and 269,000 for 1851. The exports from Liverpool, up to November 18th, were 237,540 bales, those of 1852 having been 219,480. The sum of these two for the whole year 1852 was 636,322 bales, and for 1853 they will be larger. The consumption in the German States, and even in Russia, will suffer but little decline, as the demand has for many years been advancing with great steadiness and regularity. For 1854, these countries will probably require not less than 600,000 bales.

For the last year the consumption of the United States has advanced from 603,029 bales to 671,009. The general prosperity of the New-England manufacturers, and of the country at large, warrants the anticipation of an increase in this demand. The stringency in the money market, and the decline in the probable demand for exportation to China, will be more than made up by the increased population of our country, the prosperity of the farmers on account of the high price of breadstuffs, and the abundant crops which have generally rewarded the labors of the husbandman. For the coming year the wants of our manufacturers will probably reach 700,000 bales.

The following table comprises the consumption of 1851 and 1852, the probable result for 1853, and the estimate for 1854:—

	Result for		Estimate for	
	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
Wants of Great Britain	1,663,000	1,861,000	1,700,000	1,600,000
" of France	310,000	410,000	375,000	350,000
" of United States	404.000	603,000	671.000	700,000
" of other countries	538,000	636,000	650,000	600,000
Total	2,915,000	3,510,000	3,396,000	3,250,000

SUPPLY.

In the United States, a falling off in the receipts will be everywhere experienced; but the deficiency will not be large. The promise in the early part of the year was good, in every part of the country. Up to July the season had been dry; but the drought, though disastrous to the corn, did but little damage to the cotton. On the uplands the weed was stunted; but on the good lands, especially on the river bottoms and in swampy localities, the fields could not look better. The abundant rains that set in during July and August stimulated the plant on the uplands, and appeared to help it; but the new fruit thus produced was generally cut off by the frost on the 25th of October. On the low grounds where the weed was thriving, on the appearance of the rains the squares dropped very extensively, and the late fruit in some places was ruined by the frost. In very many places, however, the plant was not killed, and the fine weather that followed the frost brought out the crop most wonderfully. It was feared that the excessive wetness of the season would encourage the production of the caterpillar and the boll-worm; and on many plantations, indeed, they made sad havoc; but they did not appear so extensively as was feared, and their ravages were not general.

From South Carolina and Georgia, a considerable decline might be expected. The first crop of bolls was small, on account of the drought; the second was lessened by the rains; and the third was generally cut off by the frost. But many places have escaped one or the other of these calamities; and the deficiency of the receipts at Charleston and Savannah will be made up in part by increased shipments from Columbus and the Tennessee River. Instead of 813,000 bales for past year, 750,000 may be expected for 1854. From Florida the falling off will be small. The crops on the Flint and Chatahoochee rivers are much better than they were last year, and were it not for the Muscogee Railroad, there would be an increase rather than a decline. The worm and caterpillar have done some damage. But the planting has been larger; they have had no disastrous storm; and the October frost did not everywhere stop the growth of the plant. The estimate for 1854 may be put at 160,000 bales. From Alabama the reports are various and contradictory. Up to July, the promise was never better. The wet weather brought the boll-worm on many plantations, and its ravages at some places were very great. The forms fell off very rapidly; many blossoms were killed. The fine prospects of the summer were by this time injured. The frost then came, and destroyed all hope of the late crop of bolls; but in many districts the growth of the cotton was not interrupted by this frost, and during the whole month of November the fine weather for opening and gathering the late crop favored the planters very much.

For Mobile, the receipts may be anticipated to be about the same as for the last two years. Similar remarks apply, for the most part, to New-Orleans. The worm was more disastrous in Mississippi and Louisiana than it was in Alabama; and the malignancy of the yellow fever interrupted at many places proper attention to the crop. A slight decline may be anticipated, therefore, for New-Orleans. From Texas, on account of the increased number of planters and the favorable seasons, a small increase over last year may be looked for. From the whole country, the receipts may be put at 3,000,000 bales, as in the table below. The great falling off in the receipts for the first part of the season, would appear at first sight to warrant the prediction that the whole crop would be very small. But last year the rivers were very favorable to early shipments from the plantations to the seaboard; and the extraordinary continuance of the yellow fever at the Gulf ports, and its unusual malignity, have, for the present season, discouraged the planters and steamboat owners from forwarding to an early market the cotton that was otherwise ready for shipment.

	Crop of	Crop of	Estimate for	
	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
Texas	46,000	64,000	86.000	90,000
New-Orleans	933,000	1,373,000	1.581,000	1,400,000
Mobile	452,000	549,000	545,000	540,000
Florida	181,000	189,000	179,000	160,000
Georgia	322,000	326,000	350,000	325,000
South Carolina	387,000	477,000	463,000	425,000
Other places	34,000	37,000	59,000	60,000
Total	2,355,000	3,015,000	3,263,000	3,000,000

The supply from the East Indies will be large. The troubles in China, whither a large portion of their exports is directed, have diverted an unusual amount of cotton from Canton, to Liverpool and London. The imports into Liverpool alone, from Surat, Madras, and Bengal, were, on the 18th of November, 277,544 bales, against 124,306 for the year 1852. The whole English receipts were 221,500 bales for 1852, and 328,800 for 1851. Of these amounts, the Liverpool receipts were 156,673 and 232,100. If the same proportion yet prevails between the Liverpool and the London imports, the receipts for Great Britain of East India cotton for 1853, will exceed 400,000 bales. For the year 1854, the revolution in China will produce a more decided effect on this diversion of the trade than it has hitherto done. The English prices, which always influence very largely the amount of Indian imports, do not promise so favorably as last year. Balancing these two causes, the estimate for 1854 may be put at 400,000 bales.

From Egypt, Brazil, and the West Indies, the supply has been on the increase for the last four or five years. For the two years, 1847 and 1848, it averaged 136,450 bales. For 1849 and 1850, it was 251,350. For 1851 and 1852, it was 263,850. For 1853, the receipts at Liverpool up to the 18th of November were 219,451 bales, against 244,939 for the preceding year. As the whole English receipts for 1852 were 346,700 bales, the smallness of the decline at Liverpool authorizes the expectation that at the end of 1853 they will reach 300,000 bales.

Will this be lessened for the incoming year? No serious falling off can be expected in the South American and West India exports. These constituted for 1851 and 1852 more than half of the receipts, and for 1853 they were two-thirds. In the Egyptian, a decline may be expected on account of the Turkish troubles. But as the planting of the crop took place before these difficulties became serious, the deficiency of the present year will be but slight. Not less than 250,000 bales may confidently be anticipated for 1854.

The supply, then, from all these sources, will probably reach 3,650,000 bales, against nearly 4,000,000 for 1853; as appears from the following table:—

	Result for		Estimate for	
	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
United States	2,355,000	3,015,000	3,263,000	3,000,000
East Indies	329,000	221,000	400,000	400,000
Other places	181,000	347,000	300,000	250,000
Total	2,865,000	3,583,000	3,963,000	3,650,000

PRICES.

As this estimate is 400,000 bales above the probable demand at present prices, according to the estimate given above, it would seem impossible to sustain the rates at which cotton is now selling. The stocks are already large, on account of the immense production of last year. On the first of September the amount of old cotton in our ports was 135,648 bales, against 91,176 for the year 1852. On the first Friday of October it was in Liverpool 770,770 bales, against 506,670 in 1852. At Havre it had increased, by October 14th, to 53,586 bales over the preceding year. The accumulation at these places having advanced more than 350,000 bales during 1853, furnishes a proof that the large crop of the past year has not been consumed. The great deficiency in our receipts at the seaboard, for the early part of the present season, and of our exports to foreign countries, does not permit the enhanced amount of stocks to be now so apparent as it otherwise would be.

Since, then, the stocks increased largely in 1853, and promise to continue to advance still more for the present year, it would seem impossible that the market price for cotton should continue above the average rates. For the last fourteen years, from 1840 to 1853, the average price has been 8 cents and 7 mills. The exports to foreign ports for the first ten of these years, amounted in all to 7,128 millions of pounds; for the last four they have been 3,570 millions. The value of the first ten was 552 millions of dollars; of the last four, 381 millions. For the whole period, 10,698 millions of pounds were exported for 933 millions of dollars, giving the average price just mentioned. The present price at Charleston, (December 9th, 1853,) for middling, is 9¼, and for good middling 10 cents. These rates being decidedly above the average, cannot well be maintained in the face of the large supply and the diminished demand, while food remains dear and money scarce, while actual war is raging between Russia and Turkey, and imminent danger of general hostilities impends over the principal States of Europe. The large demand in the United States, both for the raw material and for English cotton goods, the immense trade opened in Australia, and the general prosperity in the English colonies and in Mexico and South America, will prevent a serious decline. But that prices must fall below the average of past years appears to be plainly foreshadowed by the history of the past and the circumstances under which the new year opens.

Art. II.—MINNESOTA AND ITS RESOURCES.

A WORK has recently issued from the press, by J. Wesley Bond, which treats of Minnesota and its Resources. We are thus enabled to add another to our series of papers upon the States and Territories of the Union.

The author has, doubtless, given us a faithful portrait of what he has seen in that remote Territory, and speaks of things in a style and manner that induce us to believe them to be just what they are represented. The subject, applied to a region until recently unknown even to the pioneer, being new to most read ers, and important at this conjuncture of our political history and territorial progress, has demanded of him a careful survey of the ground his sketches travel over; and he has furnished us with a practical result of his observations, rather than a rehash of merely speculative opinions, founded on hearsay testimony, often incongruous in detail, and mostly unreliable for the border romance and hunter fiction which, it is stubbornly insisted, forms a legitimate feature in descriptions of a new country and a new people. In so far as observation has carried him, he has prudently sought to present naked facts, without any relieving touches of fancy, or his narrative being adorned with whimsical rhapsodies and rhetorical verbiage. He is furnishing the reader with a common-sense sketch of a still wild and partially unsettled territory, about being reclaimed from solitude, and given over to civilization as a nursery of the arts and industry. But however dull and prosy such a theme is, viewed in this light, it has its attractive features. An ardent and juvenile temperament would find in it ample material for an epic—of savage Achilles, and black-eyed Helens; but Mr. Bond treats the subject as would a farmer or a speculator—he discovers localities which are likely best to repay the husbandman for his toil, or the capitalist a per centum on moneys advanced for locating a city. Such a writer it is pleasant to follow, especially in this utilitarian age, when all the world is agog for wealth, and the means whereby it is cheaply to be acquired.

The student of history has had his memory refreshed again and again with rehearsals of Central American civilization in some supposed age anterior to the discovery of the Continent by the Spaniards. Many volumes have been written to prove that the mounds and lettered monuments of Colombia and Peru, discovered from time to time, and bearing unmistakable traces of great antiquity, all relate to an era in primitive American history, when the arts and sciences have flourished there, and that the present ignorance and degradation of the Central American people only recall the desolation of Tadmor in the wilderness, whose ashes and repose the Arab disturbs with indignity. But few have perused Venegas, the Jesuit and Missionary, whose footprints Carson, Fremont, and others, have trailed away up towards the sources of the Colorado; and who knows but that he may have crossed into the Utah basin, and beheld, as it were, "standing on the Mount," Minnesota, not as it is, but at this early period peopled by a nation of whom but the relics, in the Indians of that territory, now remain? The more that is brought to light by the researches of the archæologist, and the enterprise of the trader, the trapper, and the pioneer, relating to the primitive settlement of America, the more does inclination prompt to re-write the history of discovery, and modify the chronology of events. Venegas, three hundred years ago, had much to describe of the people inhabiting California, and along the margin of the Colorado. His chapters devoted to the natural history of the country could not with propriety be adopted by any writer on the natural history of that country now; for his birds and his beasts, his herds and his flocks, like his cities and their inhabitants, have all disappeared, been swept from the earth, leaving no token of their former existence. When, therefore, we glibly talk of the onward tide of emigration, the settlement of a new territory, and the founding of a city in a wilderness, we in the next breath ought to inquire whether a red-skinned Marius may not have wept upon that very spot, or another Belshazzar have held a feast there at the moment his kingdom and sceptre were passing from him. But no matter. The inheritance comes to us purified, and we have only to accept and improve it.

Minnesota, or the land of the Dakotas, was known to European missionaries long before many of our other Western or Northwestern territories were. Father Menard endeavored to reach it in 1658, but was lost on his way. Hennepin, undeterred by the fate of Menard, boldly buried himself amid the same wilds, in 1680, and was probably the second of European birth to break the silence by word of the mighty domain. He gave the baptismal name to the falls of St. Anthony, whose roar is now a familiar sound to the voyager and the emigrant. Later, Baron La Hontan, the geographer, journeyed over nearly the same ground; and still later,* Le Sueur, the brave trader of the Sioux, penetrated to the camp of the fierce Dakotas. After Le Sueur came Jonathan Carver,† then Cass, Schoolcraft, Nicollet, Fremont, Long, and others, until at length the country began to be regarded as lying within the compass of social intercourse; and its next progressive step will be to clamor for State admittance into the Union.

The Territory of Minnesota, as organized by the act of Congress of March 3, 1849, "is," says Mr. Bond, "an extensive region, being about four times as large as the State of Ohio, and is 672 miles in extent from its southeastern to its northwestern border. It extends from the Mississippi and St. Croix rivers and the western extremity of Lake Superior on the East, to the Missouri and White Earth rivers on the West, a distance of over 400 miles; and from the Iowa line (latitude 43° 30′) on the South, to the British line (latitude 49°) on the North, also a distance of over 400 miles, the whole comprising an area of 166,000 square miles, or 106,000,000 acres." "Almost the entire area," continues Mr. Bond, "is a fine rolling prairie of rich soil, a sandy loam adapted to the short summers of the climate, and which produce bounteously, nay, luxuriously. The surface of the country, excepting the Missouri plains, is interspersed with numerous beautiful lakes of fresh water, all abounding in the finest fish, and their banks covered with a fine growth of woodland. The land is about equally divided between oak-openings and prairies, the whole well watered by numerous streams navigable for steamers. In the eastern part, viz., on the head-waters of the Mississippi, Rum River, and the St. Croix, are extensive pine and hard wood forests, apparently inexhaustible for centuries."

---

* 1700.

† 1776.

Any one, to study Minnesota properly, should lay before him a map by which its geographical situation would bring its internal advantages more into view. Nature has so disposed it among its sister territories, that, in its relation with the States, it presents transcendent inducements for a speedy location of the soil, and a monopoly of the rare resources it has at command. It does not spread directly across the route of the California emigrant, or compel the commerce of the two oceans to construct a railroad upon its borders; these are considerations; but they are used in logic, as signs are on turnpike gates, to warn the traveller that there is a toll to pay; being somewhat compulsory, too, for they are bids to conciliation, as footpads are who arrest you on a journey, with one hand extended, the other on a weapon, with nothing in their pockets, and rags on their backs. Minnesota, unless the range of its destiny is at a tangent, has something inherently commendable and attractive to the capitalist and schemer. The Mississippi River, which traverses the Territory through its central part, is navigable for a distance of 400 miles; while on its southern boundary it has the St. Peter's River, as a tributary to the Father of Floods, and a channel of water communication for the whole region through which it flows. Thus, by means of its tributaries, Minnesota River, the Sioux Wood River, the Red River, and their lake connections, the entire Northern region is brought by the Mississippi into navigable proximity with St. Paul's, the future trade metropolis of the Northwest; and thence, with the country bordering the Mississippi, an open and free intercourse is held with the States through which that river passes until it empties into the Gulf of Mexico. Portage is now conducted with little disadvantage, from tributary to tributary, in common wagons; when, as must be the case, enterprise has built railroads so as to enlarge the radius of operation, nothing but devastating calamity can retard the growth of the Territory, in every element of substantial wealth, from that hour. Mr. Bond has, as we have said, carefully surveyed the ground he travelled over. He confirms the opinion just uttered, and adds what follows relating to the lower or southern portion of the Territory:—

> "A railroad connection will eventually be made from the mouth of the Bois de Sioux to Fond du Lac; also from the same point to St. Anthony and St. Paul, *via* Sauk Rapids and the Mississippi. Another will connect the same point with Lac qui Parle, on account of the portage at Big-Stone Lake; thence down to the mouth of Blue Earth; thence southeasterly through Iowa to some point, say Prairie du Chien, or Dubuque, on the Lower Mississippi."

Minnesota, besides being a country capable of producing every variety of provisions and breadstuffs, with a large saving of means, owing to the climate, the quality of the soil, and the nature of the surface, is geographically so placed that it must become ultimately the great reservoir of much of the various products of other and contiguous territories, in seeking a market on the seaboard. Hence Mr. Bond follows his remarks, just quoted, with the observation: "Let not the [in] credulous reader smile at this. I have been through a principal portion of the regions here described, and, without enthusiasm, write from a survey of the country and a knowledge of its capacities and resources when once brought out. Let no one think the great tide of immigration will confine itself to the banks of the Minnesota and Mississippi rivers; on the contrary, the whole interior to the North and West of these two streams will soon be peopled, and thickly peopled, too."

One of the common errors advocated by a portion of the press is, that "railroads must follow," but that "they rarely precede emigration." A fallacy so senseless, and yet so popular, is disproved by every revelation of time, and every page of history. Every progressive step made by society, in its industrial organization, has been taken after the means of communication in intercourse and trade have preceded. From the notching of trees as a trail by the pioneer, to the building of a railroad by the advanced and wealthy community, are but different vindications of a common law, one simply being an improvement over the other. That law is expediency; the wisdom of it is shown in the obedience to it; while the impulse to conform to it is but an inherent yet inexplicable conviction of its necessity. It is exemplified in brutes; it is simplified, extended as a principle, and vindicated as a fact in man. Even to the laying out, improving, and the condition in which it is kept, of a street in a city, will travel set into, or retreat from it, and business and wealth follow the tide.

Having spoken of the rivers of Minnesota, we come to examine more carefully the physical aspects of the country, and to discuss its resources. If occasionally we are compelled to confound an apostolic patronymic with the heathen nomenclature of the country, we hope to be pardoned for the sacrilege; but how it has happened that St. John, St. Paul, and St. Peter, are almost invariably twin-tied with Red Jacket, Big Legs, and Crow Heels, we are utterly at a loss to determine; and Mr. Bond has not attempted to enlighten his readers.

Minnesota is devoid of mountains. It has high hills; but these are covered with verdure, are without rocks or precipices, and may be cultivated to their summits. There are many lakes scattered throughout the Territory—some large, and others small; all tolerably deep, filled with pure, clear water, and teeming with fish of multitudinous variety. Wild rice grows on these lakes, which therefore become the haunt in large flocks of different water-fowl. Swamps are scarce. Such as are found are easily reclaimed. As for the climate, "in our coldest weather," says Mr. Bond, "when the mercury congeals, men perform as much labor out of doors as at any time in the year. The air is then still as death. * * * In summer we have a few days intensely hot, but frequent showers from spring until harvest, and most of them in the short nights. At midsummer the sun seems scarcely to go down in the west * * before we again behold his blazing chariot in the east. At nine o'clock in the evening, it is then scarcely too dark for your wives and daughters to be sewing." The autumn is prolonged, and winter is ushered in gradually and with grateful preparation.

Timber abounds. Oaks, rock maple, and black walnuts, attain great height and bulk; but the pine-tree, for lumber and marine purposes, is specially dwelt upon as a product of the Territory. A large number of saw-mills have been erected along the tributaries of the great streams, which do a flourishing business; but they cannot, it appears, more than supply the local demand, and consequently the drift to the distant markets is limited. "We have also," says Mr. Bond, "more and better inducements for agriculture than any other country can boast." He states his reasons for this unqualified assumption: 1st, superiority of climate; 2d, superiority of land. He proceeds to show, by analyses of the subject, wherein these assumed superiorities exist. The climate (is his conclusion) is not only genial to the growth of grain and vegetables, but it contributes to the physical strength. "Labor," he contends, "stands up firmly on its legs here the year round, and drives things through." The fecundity of the soil he has never seen surpassed, rarely equalled. "The Minnesotans will take anything," says Mr. B.; "don't care what the crop is—any grain—any root—anything, from a castor bean, or an apple or pear, or a pumpkin, to a sweet potato or a tobacco plant," and they will put the Territory against the world. Frost comes late, and ceases early. Besides, it gives seasonable warning of its approach, and plays few tricks with the husbandman, such as taking him at unguarded times, and in unexpected moments.

Notwithstanding the opinions of geologists, it appears that coal has been found in one or two spots, and fresh discoveries of this mineral are anticipated. No mention is made by Mr. Bond of iron ore, but the inference is strong that the Territory is not devoid of iron formations. There is hardly a State or Territory west of Ohio that does not contain such formations, and which are worked; and recently an extensive vein has been discovered near Lake Superior, of the existence of which geologists had been in complete ignorance until accident brought it to light.

The farmer about to migrate to Minnesota, is told to settle anywhere. There is, according to Mr. Bond, a preference given to no part of the Territory over another. The inducement is general, and the temptation is repaid by finding fertile lands, available water-courses, well-studded forests, and a blooming paradise everywhere. Localities, however, are pointed out to the mechanic and the artisan, not because one section has advantages which another might not possess, but because, each being scarce, the demand in the more populous regions is greater. "A hundred mills," says Mr. B., both saw and grist, "would pay well now, if they could be at once located at St. Paul, St. Anthony, and at the Sauk Rapids; also at Lake Pepin, Lake Minnetonka, and more especially on the Minnesota River." Masons, carpenters, joiners, blacksmiths, burr-stone dressers, and, indeed, every branch of the mechanic arts, are solicited to come to the Territory, and impress the features of their trades upon it; for, notwithstanding the inhabitants manage to have their cattle shod, their houses built, and their agricultural implements sharpened, the ground yet to be occupied by mechanic enterprise is coextensive with the country. "Mechanics and laborers," adds Mr. B., "will find work everywhere in town and country. There is a demand for both, and high wages [are] ready. Mechanics get all kinds of prices, according to the trade and skill of the man. Two dollars per day is the medium price. Common laborers get from one dollar to one dollar and a quarter per day." The demand for the latter is enhanced by the fact that numerous government roads are in process of construction, and hands are required to hasten the work. Steamboating on the rivers of Minnesota, according to M. Bond, must be one of the grandest and most picturesque enjoyments imaginable. Snow falls usually in November, and lies on the ground until March, when it goes off in gradual thaws, increasing the volume of water in the streams, thus proving doubly of benefit to the timber raftsman and husbandman. The winters are remarkably dry, the springs wet and boisterous, the summers cool and pleasant, with a southwestern breeeze almost constantly prevailing, and the autumns, like the autumns of the Orient, full of song, of life, and genial sunshine. As a wheat-producing country, Minnesota may well compare with any other in the world.

St. Paul, the capital of the Territory, is in latitude 44° 52′ 46″ North, and longitude 93° 4′ 54″ West. It has been made a port of entry, and from a hunter's ranch has become a populous and flourishing inland city. It is pleasantly situated on the east bank of the Mississippi River, near its confluence with the Minnesota River, and is 800 feet above the level of the Gulf of Mexico. It contains 5,000 inhabitants, and increases beyond all calculation or estimate. "Commercially," says Mr. Bond, "it is the key to all the vast region north of it, and, by the Minnesota River, to the immense valley drained through that important tributary to the Father of Waters. The approach to it by the river from below is grand and imposing. The traveller, after leaving Dubuque more than three hundred miles below, sees nothing to remind him of a city, or even a prosperous business town, until he rounds the bend in the river below St. Paul, and her tall spires, substantial business houses, and neat dwellings, burst upon his view."

Five years ago there was not the sign of a white village in the whole Territory. Now St. Paul aspires to the rank of a city, with 5,000 inhabitants.

The region about the city is described to be most delightful. The landscape is beautiful and attractive for its alternating character; lakes and rivulets are met with at short intervals, abounding with all manner of fish, and among the rest the White Mountain trout species, with any quantity of our ordinary fresh-stream swarms. "A stranger," says Mr. Bond, "is generally astonished, and not unfrequently very much amused, at the scene presented for contemplation on his first arrival at the St. Paul landing. In short, his first impressions, with regard to the state of society here, are altogether unfavorable. He is welcomed by an unusual and motley group of human beings, gathered from all parts of the Union, the Canadas, the Indian lands, and Perubina, besides the curiously mixed-up race of natives." This picture may serve briefly to convey an idea of the physical character of the city population, but in point of morals, temperance, and intellectual culture, St. Paul is an exception to the rule of heterogeneous border life, for it seems that the people have contrived to build more churches than there are really persons to fill them. A people thus zealously disposed to show their respect and high obligation to duty, are not apt to omit what is equally incumbent upon them, the education essential to appreciate sacred objects of devotion.

The commerce of a city like St. Paul, opening its gates on all sides to a wilderness, must partake of the simple features of primitive barter among the early inhabitants of the Atlantic board. We can imagine the character of the commodities that find their way into and from this modern Persepolis. Furs, peltries, ginseng, roots, and skins, brought by the Dakotas, and their red brethren; these carry away with them tobacco, spirits, blankets, ammunition, and toys: pine, oak, hemlock, and hoop-poles, brought by the sunburnt woodsman; he carries away with him coffee, tea, muslin, rice, sugar, calico, and numerous household and culinary wares: wheat, rye, oats, potatoes, and seeds, brought by the farmer; he carries away with him bar-iron, a few luxuries, and perhaps an order from the merchant to the nearest blacksmith for a set of harrow-teeth. In fine, money is not mentioned, nor is it needed. The territory supplies the necessities of the people, and St. Paul dispenses them.

We cannot resist giving Mr. Bond's views of the *probable* future consequence of St. Paul as a foreign entrepôt for an overland Pacific route. He says: "The route from Halifax to Tuca Straits, opposite to Vancouver's Island, has been ascertained to be quite as feasible as the route proposed from Lake Michigan to Puget's Sound, and a very large part of the country is the finest wheat country in the world. The distance would vary but little from that of our route, while from London to China it would be considerably less than ours. By measuring a globe, it will be seen that Lake Huron is less distant from London than New-York is from London; and as Lake Superior is but six hundred and fifty feet elevated above the Atlantic, a railroad from Halifax to Lake Superior might be constructed on almost a dead level. This would enable England to transport all the produce of the Mississippi basin to Halifax at a much less cost than to any [American] Atlantic city. Besides, Halifax is much nearer to Europe, and would avoid the storms and dangers of navigation between Halifax and New-York." Hence, Mr. Bond argues, it should be the policy of American capitalists (if the General Government will not take the matter in charge) to run a railroad to the Pacific, pretty near to St. Paul on the South, otherwise, should the British government open a railroad from Halifax to British Oregon, "interest," says Mr. Bond, "would immediately require the construction of a railroad from St. Paul to intersect it." Thus, he continues, "The whole of the intercourse of the Southern and Western States, with Oregon, nay, with California, would take this route," and the United States be deprived of the overland carrying trade of Europe with the East Indies. At best this is but a speculation, the only one Mr. Bond indulges in that is not stamped with unquestionable sagacity. The British government has seriously thought of the Halifax survey; but whether it has any idea of promptly locating it with iron rails, remains to be seen. The suggestion, however, is not bad; and it has the additional merit of inviting reflection on the subject. St. Paul is, without doubt, eligibly situated; but what gives to it importance over every merely hypothetical assurance of what the future may ungarner, is, that it has its foundation laid on the banks of the Mississippi, whose lordly current has present capacity for all the transit trade that the West and the Northwest may empty upon its bosom. Mr. Bond assures the reader that the subjoined is a pretty accurate exhibit of the amount of money invested in mercantile operations in St. Paul:—

Dry goods	$100,000	Groceries	$83,000
Assorted merchandise	100,000	Clothing, and hat and cap stores	30,000
Boots and shoes	10,000	Hardware	5,000
Farming implements	8,000	Books and stationery	12,000
Drugs, oils, paints, glass, &c.	12,000	Iron and nails	20,000
Miscellaneous	10,000		

Add capital invested in Indian trade, government contracts, &c.......400,000

Total........$790,000

A large proportion of the mercantile trade of St. Paul is wholesale. The following are investments in the manufacturing business of the city:—

3	Steam saw-mills, machinery, and stock	$100,000
1	Flouring mill	12,000
1	Sash and planing shop	10,000
1	Iron foundry, and machine shop attached	3,000
3	Stove and tinware establishments	8,000
1	Plough and farming implement factory	3,000
4	Carriage and wagon factories	8,000
	Several blacksmith shops	5,000
2	Cabinet-ware and furniture shops	9,000
	Boot and shoe establishments	5,000
	Saddle and harness "	5,000
	Bakers' and confectioners' "	4,000
	Miscellaneous	5,000
	Total	$177,000

These are the tangible evidences of a people's prosperity. Where the plough, the loom, the anvil, and the merchant and grocer are congregated, and their products and merchandise find a market, happiness will build itself up as an institution among them, and opulence crown their ambition.

St. Paul contains about 600 buildings, used as dwellings and factories, &c., which Mr. Bond classifies as follows:—

Dwellings, offices, and shops	517
Manufactories and business houses	70
Churches, 6; hotels, 4	10
School-houses, public and private	4
Court-house and jail	2
Capitol	1
	604

Probably 80 or 100 are in process of erection, and ready for roofing, which are not included in this count. The foundations are dug and the timbers framed of others; and thus in a few years we shall lose sight of the Dakota's wigwams, in the clustering dwellings of the white man, and palatial edifices of the money-changer.

We have just said, that in a community such as we might suppose inhabits St. Paul, education would not be neglected; and in turning over another page of Mr. Bond's work, we find that our convictions are confirmed. Not only has the Legislature of the Territory made ample provision for primary schools, but it has incorporated a University at St. Anthony's Falls, where the higher branches are taught, and the mind expands with the inspiration of Horace and Virgil. The poor Indian who beholds these innovations, and avoids the axe that despoils his hunting-grounds, is not rudely thrust forth, condemned to wander among the graves of his buried ancestry uncared for. He is invited to join in with the paler-faced children of the Territory, not to participate in ruthless carnivals, but to partake of the feasts of wisdom these schools afford, so that it may no longer be held a reproach to the Dakota—

> "Lo! the poor Indian, whose untutor'd mind
> Sees God in clouds and hears him in the wind;
> His soul proud science never taught to stray
> Far as the Solar Walk or Milky Way."

With the subjoined quotations from Mr. Bond's work, we shall conclude this imperfect sketch of "Minnesota and its Resources." Here is a statement of crops obtained by a tribe of Winnebagoes on Long Prairie last year. As a general thing, the Indian races will not labor; but this beginning is fruitful of expectation for the future:—

	Planted acres.	Raised bushels.
Corn	300	12,000
Potatoes	50	10,000
Wheat	10	300
Turnips	50	10,000
Oats	40	4,000
Garden Vegetables	10	
Raised on the Mississippi Flats:—		
Corn	100	2,000
Potatoes	10	1,000
Turnips	80	8,000

St. Paul, as the capital of the Territory, has demanded special mention; but it is not the only town that has engrafted with the soil of Minnesota. Settlements, that assume the form of hamlets and villages, are sparsely scattered here and there, all hopeful, ambitious, and promising. If Minnesota is the Arcadia it is represented to be, Mr. Bond may with propriety conclude his volume with a vision, in which, not with shut, but open eyes, he sees Amalthea emptying her cornucopia into the streets of St. Paul.

St. Paul, according to the United States Census, has one academy, which, in 1850, contained 12 students. The State at large, according to the same authority, has one State library, containing 3,000 volumes; and one social library, containing 200 volumes. The territorial population in the same year was 6,077; number of dwellings, 1,002; number of families, 1,016. Of the aggregate population, 2,336 were returned as belonging to the trades and professions, namely, carpenters and joiners, 188; lumbermen, 126; farmers, 340; hunters, 207; laborers, 599, &c., &c. The number returned as merchants was 87. The other trades and professions range from one to sixteen, and as high as thirty.

Art. III.—NATURAL HISTORY IN ITS RELATIONS TO GEORGIA.

NATURAL HISTORY makes us acquainted with objects that constitute this sphere on which we dwell, and with the animals and vegetables that live on its surface. These objects, so far as applicable, are considered in relation to their structure, internal and external, their conditions of existence, their mode of formation, their changes, their habits and properties; their resemblances, so as to form groups, classes, families, orders and genera, their differences which separate them, and their uses.

To develop the Natural History of Georgia, then, is, 1st. To learn the nature of all the materials that compose her soil; the rocks, that form her hills and mountains; the waters, that burst from her hill-sides, or flow from her swamps; the vegetation, that grows on her surface, from the minutest conferva that floats in her stagnant pools, to the majestic forest-tree that adorns her mountain summits, or spreads in luxuriance in her fertile bottoms; the minutest insect, that lives but an hour, to the largest animal that roams her forests, and the eagle that dwells amid her mountain peaks. And,

2d. To develop, and apply, by well-directed intelligence, any or all of these various objects, that they may administer to the uses, necessities, and luxuries of man.

These are the ends that the development of the Natural History of Georgia must aim to accomplish. To do it, must require time, measured by many years. It must require the expenditure of physical and mental power, and money. It must require the co-operation of the great mass of her citizens. And when all these conditions are fulfilled, and the open fields now before us are explored, new relations, new interests, new objects, shall rise up to demand unlimited effort.

To develop nature, is to unfold an endless series. We cannot examine one object she presents, apparently the most circumscribed in its relations and characters, without finding those relations and characters, but the figures on an external covering, that obscured from superficial view matters of exhaustless interest beneath.

It will be perceived that we do not anticipate completion of the work of developing the Natural History of Georgia. No, centuries may pass, and no end shall be seen to the widening way, that generations may illumine by their efforts. The way shall grow broader, and the objects shall become more majestic, but no end shall be reached.

Man is placed in this world to supply all his physical wants from the objects around him. Not by their spontaneous production, but to be developed by his ingenuity and skill. He stands amid concealed blessings, which are to be elaborated by the exercise of powers his Creator has implanted within him. He is placed under the control of physical laws, of which naturally he is ignorant; and with no instinct to guide him in their application, to administer to his interests or happiness. The earliest attention to natural history consisted in collecting from the mineral kingdom substances that may serve in their natural state useful purposes, or may afford, by reduction, the various metals for all the numerous applications for which they are employed; the gathering from the wild, indigenous vegetables, those that by culture may afford food, clothing, and materials for useful arts; the seeking among the animals such as may, by domestication, administer to the wants of man. These constituted the earliest objects of natural history. These ends the immediate descendants of Adam, to a greater or less degree, attained. And all nations, to a greater or less extent, have done the same.

In all past ages, man has failed in obtaining these ends, by anything like a correct knowledge of the true conditions of success. He has acted by no intelligence, as to the nature or relations of the objects with which he has had to deal.

Nature, in her bountiful goodness, has made the conditions of partial success so easy, that the most unskilful management will supply the necessary wants of man. With this he has been contented. So forgetful has he often been of the interest he had in developing the resources of the regions he has visited, and become an inhabitant of, that he has carried with him the productions of his fatherland, and dwelt centuries amid objects, and regardless of them, that, with the slightest care, might have conferred benefits beyond conception.

This position is abundantly supported by cases in our own country.

We propose treating of Natural History as a source of benefit to individuals and communities.

What is more simple, or easier of comprehension, than innumerable arrangements of vegetable structure and growth? Let the youth see the incalculable mouths on the under sides of leaves, which are pumping up the noxious gases of the atmosphere, and emitting in its stead the vital air of animals. Let him see that the splendid colorings of the beautiful flowers are produced by a slight change in the green color of leaves, shining through cells slightly disarranged, and disarranged for this very purpose. Let him learn, by the simplest experiment, that a great part of the material of plants comes from the exhaustless storehouse, the air. Would he grow up and be guilty of converting fertile lots into barren wastes? He would learn that Nature holds out to his acceptance wealth in ever-increasing fertile fields, if he will receive and practise her simplest lessons. She has thrown within the reach of every one, who possesses a field in this land, the means of making it more productive for ages to come, without ever leaving its boundaries, or carrying an ounce of material on to it; and he may export his cotton, grain, and meat, in the meantime. The blowing winds shall supply all deficiency, if he will allow them to do it, and keep what they bring, when they have brought it.

Every old red hill in Georgia is an ugly index of the palpable violation of nature's simplest laws. Every barren field proclaims, by its desolateness, the trampling under foot of the plainest teachings of the great volume of God's creation. They both stand out as unmistakable proofs of the bad instruction of the children of an agricultural community. An exhausted soil, poor animals, imported productions, in a State that lies beneath a sky more genial than covers any portion of the globe, argue most conclusively that something is wrong in the impulses that propel the social machine. A man, digging in the Silurian period for coal, as we have seen in Cherokee, presents no less ridiculous appearance than would one who was dredging a pond to catch mocking-birds. His earliest elementary teaching ought to have been better.

People of Georgia—you have mountain districts for cattle and the coarser grains, lying geologically on the most fertile strata. You have middle regions for all the finer productions of a temperate climate. You have almost tropical plains of the South, for the hardier intertropical productions. You have a long line of sea-coast lined with fertile islands, for all the peculiar productions requiring oceanic influences. Are there not in Georgia all the climates of the United States? Not a plant or animal that grows within the limits of the Union, that cannot be grown to perfection within the limits of Georgia.

Observe your soil. That of Cherokee, from the decomposition of the Silurian period, best fitted for all the products of a temperate climate, the very same as the most productive portions of the globe. The soil of Middle Georgia, much of it decomposed syenite, abounding in burned clay and oxide of iron, and best fitted to catch the fertilizing gases that load the air, abounding in potash and the phosphates, the essential elements of a productive country. The porous and deep soils of the lower regions, especially adapted for all the productions of the warmer portions of the globe. We have deposited within the earth the greatest variety of mineral substances. *Iron* is found throughout a great part of the State in exhaustless quantities, and of a kind best suited, by reduction, for the production of the finest qualities of manufactured iron. *Copper* in unlimited abundance, and ready formed for the manufacture of the important compounds of this useful metal. *Gold* is found in abundance, happily tasking the ingenuity and skill of our citizens for its rapid production in an isolated state. *Lead* and *silver* are found; but no attention has been directed to the development of these metals. *Mercury* is found pure, issuing from the clefts of rocks. Diamonds exist within the State; and this priceless mineral will yet, we have little doubt, stand among the productions of Georgia. *Lime*, in many varieties, forms mountain masses. Hydraulic limestone, so important a product, is found in unlimited quantities. Marls and greensand, abounding in organic matter and phosphates, are spread over large portions of the poorer regions of Georgia; and, by bringing them to the surface, we would load with luxuriance these now neglected sections of our State. Porcelain clay, of the finest quality, for all the demands of the most extensive potteries, is found in various locations. Materials of the finest glass are without limit. Burr-stone, second only to the French, is one of our Eocene formations.

Salt and coal are not largely found in Georgia; but Nature seems to have taken especial care that the State should be an easy recipient of every blessing, when there would not seem room enough on her own surface. The Tennessee River is made to sweep down to her northern border. The banks of this river abound in coal, and by its waters we are placed in direct contact with inexhaustible quantities of this valuable deposit. Salt, in enormous quantities, might be manufactured on what are now the useless marshes of our sea-board.

Look at the vegetable productions of Georgia.

Give to our persimmon the care that the apple, pear, and peach have received, and it will stand prominent among the most delicious fruits that can come to our tables.

The olive grows wild in our swamps. Call it out and nurse it. Cultivate it, and the oil of Lucca shall not surpass its richness.

The grape abounds in great variety. With little or no care, two of the best grapes now cultivated are of Southern production. We have others, some with all the powerful qualities of those most highly esteemed. Cross them and bring out their qualities, and wine and oil shall gladden the heart of man, and make his face to shine.

That troublesome weed, the May-pop, will grow where nothing else can. Its fruit might lie side by side with the melons had with proper care. It has within it the elements of a luxurious product. We have a native gooseberry that might, undoubtedly, give us this delicious fruit, of which we are now deprived, as the foreign species will not flourish in Middle and Southern Georgia. We have a common shrub that yields a perfume unsurpassed by any other that enters into the finest productions of the perfumer's art; and others in combination can scarcely be equalled. The uses of the sweet potato are not half developed; so of the ground-pea; and cotton-seed is worth raising for its own sake. For illumination, it is unequalled.

In medicinal plants, our State abounds. In special cases, there are no more valuable remedies than the *Styllingea sylvatica*, *Calycanthus floridas*, *Smilax*, *Pseudo-China*, and others that space forbids our naming.

Our *Bignonias*, even in their wild state, are inferior to none of the imported varieties. Our Azaleas surpass, in every element of beauty, every product of the exotic gardener's care. He labors, and by hybridization gets a decent flower of this genus. But we could take him to the hill-sides of Monroe and Crawford, and exhibit to him collections that as far surpass his productions in magnificence and variety as the broad hill-side surpasses his flower-pot.

Look at our Pancratiums, perfect giants, and splendid giants, too, beside the foreign flowers. Care for an Amaryllis would make it equal any of its foreign sisters, reared with so much care. Our Bijaria, Rhododendrons, Salvias, Verbenas, Cerasus, and others too numerous to mention, would deck a lawn, or beautify a garden that would not yield in any respect to Eastern magnificence.

How are these objects to be developed? By great discourses on developing the Natural History of Georgia? By appointing a State Geologist or Naturalist? By expenditure of State funds in an experimental garden? By State fairs? We answer, most emphatically—no. All of these cannot accomplish it. They are all good in their places. The main spring lies back of these agencies. The impulse must originate in the hearts and desires, not only of the men and women, but of the youth of our land. The youth even must be made to feel that there ought to be something besides *money* and *show* in this world. That there ought to be *homes*. That these homes should each be an experimental plantation—not to raise the greatest number of pounds of cotton to the acre, all else disregarded,—or the largest mule, or fleetest horse, or the fattest hog; but to bring to perfect development, by intelligent management, all that Nature allows the locality to produce. Let the premises be an Eden, wherein bloom the flowers and ripens the fruit that, by the fragrance and beauty of the one, and the delicious perfection of the other, the soul and body shall expand together. When the principles of Animal Physiology and instincts shall be applied by an intelligence gained by patient and long induction to the perfection of every living being, from the bee to the horse, what a scene would such a plantation exhibit! It would be an Eden, indeed, all depending on the same intelligence, and communicating blessings each in its appropriate sphere.

What possible attractions could the wilds of Texas or Arkansas have for the proprietor of such a home? The young and enterprising might go to such regions, and found similar homes there. We want attractive homes throughout the land. Our wealthy planters often live where it must be a task to live, and for the reason they received no lessons from Nature's glorious volume in early years. Their children will come up in the same way, and when the soil is exhausted they must move farther West. There is nothing to bind them to the spot of their birth; it is desolate and unattractive. How sad to pass such spots, so frequent in our beloved State! The old farms desolate and forsaken, which ought to be the richest and most attractive, an might so easily be so.

A family bent on producing everything their locality will admit in its greatest natural development, and studying ever to aid and guide Nature in effecting desirable results by knowledge of her laws, would unquestionably receive even more money in the course of years than a family bent on making the most cotton possible every year. The former family, too, has been every year reaping richer harvests than the fields produced, in the happiness that results from almost perfect independence, and in the delightful interest that everything living creates, when growing and perfecting under the unobstructed laws of its own nature. All pour blessings into the souls of those who guide and keep them. All Nature herself becomes a minister of joy and happiness to such.

There is need of the young especially learning what are the prime, legitimate objects of human pursuit. They should learn that money or popular applause are not such objects. That the perfect accomplishment of the duties of our respective callings is the great object. Wealth and honor may come. If so, it is well. They are both desirable. But, if they come not, our great aim of life has not been thwarted. The merchant, mechanic, doctor, lawyer, may all accomplish the legitimate ends of their calling. But, is there a planter in this wide-spread land that does it? One who manages the vast interests of a single plantation—that fulfils with proper intelligence all the demands of his calling—in other words, that develops the Natural History of his own plantation? I answer, I do not believe there is; and with our present knowledge, there can be none. The planter is not to be blamed. There are many that are noble and learned men, and Georgia has some whose names shall be forgotten only when science and learning shall disappear from the earth.

We talk of learned professions; and if there is a son in a family that exhibits signs of unusual promise, he must be made a lawyer or a doctor. And it is a common notion, if a young man goes through college, and gets the little smattering of learning that is communicated there, he has too much knowledge for a farmer. Was there ever a more preposterous opinion afloat in an intelligent community? What! a man that has under his control all the varied conditions of animal and vegetable life—the high priest of Nature, standing between her and the millions that live upon her bounties, the results of her ministrations—does he need no mental power?

God fitted one man for the most responsible station of life. He made him wiser than all before or after him. We have no account of his bestowing upon him any of the learning of the schools. But in what was he learned? In nature. He spake, not only studied, but spoke or taught concerning the trees, from the cedar that is in Lebanon even unto the hyssop, that springeth out of the wall; he spake also of beasts, and of fowl, and of creeping things, and of fishes. This is recorded as a prominent part of the wisdom of Solomon. His first great decision between the two women that claimed the same child, and which astonished all Israel, was founded simply on animal instinct. Nature taught *him* the lesson that became so impressive on ages that followed.

It is a phenomenon of no little singularity, that in the middle of the nineteenth century, when the light of the Bible has been shining on Christendom for hundreds of years, that the position which the study of nature should occupy in our systems of education is undecided. It would seem that this should have been the first question settled. How, with the Bible in their hands, and the expounders, too, of its sacred instructions, the founders of our schools, colleges, and universities could have made out their course of study, and not a small place even given to the study of this great volume that the same God has inscribed, is, beyond expression, strange; for it is only within a few years that Natural History has become a part of the course, in some of our colleges. It is a meagre part still in all of them.

The same world is spread around us that was spread around the gardens of Paradise; the same flowers deck its surface; the same minerals lie in its bosom; the same reptiles creep on it still; the same animals wander in its wilds; the same birds fly in its atmosphere; the same numberless creatures inhabit the sea; the same heavens sparkle with their myriads of stars, or glow in the sun's greater splendor. Man has the same powers of mind. With such facts before them, is it not strange that some degree of prominence should not have been given to these objects of God's creation? Is not the Bible filled with allusions to this great storehouse of wisdom? And just in proportion as we advance in understanding the laws and natural teachings around us, in the same degree do we understand the sacred Scriptures. Let us recur, for a few moments, to this glorious volume of our Maker's will, and have some of its lessons on this topic. We take them only as examples of the allusions or statements in regard to Natural History.

In the first chapter of Genesis we have a distinct allusion to the three great classes of vegetation, which division has only been demonstrated in our own times. (Gen., i., 11.) "And God said, Let the earth bring forth *grass*, the *herb-yielding* seed, and the *fruit tree* yielding fruit after his kind, whose seed is in itself, upon the earth." Here are distinctly recognized the three great classes of vegetation, and in the order of their development, and in the order found fossilized.

In Ecclesiastes it is said that "the wind goeth towards the south and turneth about unto the north; it whirleth about continually, and the wind returneth again according to his circuits." What does this mean? Has it any meaning? He is showing the circle in which all things move, each having its ordained mission. Take the ordinary explanation of aerial currents, and it means nothing. But Lieut. Maury has demonstrated, by the aid of Ehrenberg's investigations and his own, that this expresses, in most simple and exact manner, the course of the winds. (See Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1850, p. 126. Also, Maury's Sailing Directions, p. 66.)

The internal heat of the earth is plainly indicated in the expression, "As for the earth, out of it cometh bread, and under it is turned up as it were fire."—(Job, xxviii., 5.) The meaning seems to be, that one of the strange things that God had arranged was, that the surface of the earth should yield bread, and yet beneath this same surface it should be as it were fire, that is, hot. In late years only, and after the most laborious induction, have philosophers settled down on this Bible doctrine.

In Psalm 135, we are called upon to praise God, and the prominent reasons assigned are, that he maketh the vapors to ascend from the ends of the earth; he maketh the lightnings for rain, that is, he maketh vapors to rise all over the earth; and he maketh lightnings or electricity for the use, that is, for the production of rain. That is, we should praise God, because he makes vapors to rise, and makes them fall in rain.

What special reason to praise God does the fact of vaporization afford? We should have no rain, no dew, no clouds; we might wet anything, and it would never dry. We could not live a moment. Our lungs would be furnaces in temperature. Our skin would parch with fever. Electrical action forms and sustains the vesicular vapor in the air, and by its passage off allows a coalescence of the particles of water, which fall in drops of rain.

In the 147th Psalm, a psalm of praise, one of the first reasons assigned for praise is, "who covereth the heavens with clouds; who giveth snow like wool"—that is, for the same use as wool. Who recognizes much reason for praise in these phenomena? Do commentators make out much? We have consulted none that do. The clouds equalize the temperature of climates. Look at England, growing vegetables scarcely enduring the climate of Georgia. Scatter the clouds and vapors from Georgia, and you would convert it into a field of ice in winter, and a burning desert in summer.

Snow is a covering like wool to wrap up the cold regions of the earth in. The clouds and snow are the bed-clothes in winter, and the clouds an umbrella in summer.

The 19th Psalm is a perfect exhibition of the works and word of God in apposition. The works speak to every soul in all places of his dominion. Do they do it now in the sense indicated? Who listens to their voice? Who gathers the wisdom when day unto day uttereth speech, and night unto night showeth knowledge? The much that is meant by these expressions few realize.

"Ask the beasts," says this same volume, "and they shall teach thee, and the fowls of the air and they shall tell thee; or speak to the earth, and it shall teach thee; and the fishes of the sea shall declare unto thee."—(Job, xii., 7, 8.)

Who asks of beasts to teach him? Who inquires of the fowls of the air? Who learns lessons of wisdom of the earth? Who listens to the declarations of fishes?

Did time permit, we could direct our attention to many things in which we might sit as pupils, and learn lessons of wisdom from these mute teachers, exhibiting by their instincts or construction the unsearchable wisdom of their Creator.

Besides those expressions on which the light of science has begun to shed its glimmerings, there are others that stand yet in majestic darkness. Who can conceive the meaning of the following from God's own address to Job:—"Canst thou bind the sweet influences of the Pleiades, or loose the bands of Orion? Canst thou bring forth Mazzaroth in his season, or canst thou guide Arcturus with his sons?" Who shall say that those mighty orbs, at distances more mighty for conception, do not exert a sweet influence over this globe of ours? Some future lover of nature may yet have his soul burn with unutterable joy in having discovered some as yet hidden power exerted by those distant systems, that shall give impressive import to these expressions of the Deity.

The Book of Job is a perfect exhibition of the intellectual tendencies of men educated in the schools and one educated in the teachings of Nature. The three friends argue like intellectual philosophers; but the young and rightly educated Elihu draws his teachings of a sound philosophy from the works of God alone. God condemns the former, and confirms by his own reasonings the positions of the latter. There is this striking peculiarity in all the allusions of the Bible. When they refer to well-known phenomena, they accord with common observation; but when they refer to matters not evident, they are always scientifically correct. Can this be said of any writing ever produced by man? Can it be said of the Poets, Philosophers or Historians of antiquity—of Homer, of Virgil, of Plato or Socrates? There cannot a case be found, where they depart from common observation, that they do not caricature nature. The wildest visions of imagination are treated as facts, while in the Bible, with numberless allusions, all are correct. And the Bible says that "the invisible things of him from the creation of the world are clearly seen, being understood by the things that are made, even his eternal power and Godhead."

In making up a schedule of studies, is it not strange that Bible expounders should have gone to Pagan Greece and Rome, and gathered thence three-fourths of the material with which to make out their course? The heads of youth filled with Heathen Greek, and God's glorious wonders trampled under foot. Not a spire of grass, or shapeless stone, or floating atom, that would not teach them more real wisdom than Greece or Rome, with all their learning, ever knew. They would teach of a God that thundered above Jupiter. They would teach of laws established, that rule this vast material universe. They would teach of obedience to higher powers, and devotion to the accomplishment of the end for which they were created. They would show the eternal power and Godhead of their Creator by the very impulses, likes and dislikes impressed on their minutest atoms.

Children and youth should learn something of the great operations which have been set in motion for our constant benefit, and which are now by the learned and unlearned passed by with perfect indifference. They should learn the great laws of their being. They should become familiar with the nature and constitution of the materials of daily use. They should behold, in what is hourly passing before their eyes, the skill displayed in the phenomena exhibited. They should learn that the whole earth is full of THY riches.

Every object should answer more than a single purpose. It should add to our physical necessities, communicate intellectual pleasures, and teach a moral lesson.

The attention to material objects is objected to, from the supposed effect on the taste, imagination, fancy, and finer qualities of the mind and heart. This notion has originated from an entire misconception of the subject.

There is no useful or ennobling quality of the human constitution that is not improved, elevated, refined and strengthened by a familiar intercourse with, and accurate knowledge of, natural objects and laws.

Is not the taste of the painter, sculptor, or poet, determined by his truthfulness to nature? How can that exert any hurtful effect on the taste, which is the criterion of correct taste? The position needs no other refutation. The profound ignorance of nature of many of these producers stands out in their performances in the most glaring manner.

There can be no true pursuits of nature without imagination. The naturalist is impelled onward by imagination ever on the stretch. What can excite it more than to see beautiful scenes before us, and as we arrive at them, still more beautiful rising in the distance? How does imagination paint the still hidden scenes until perfection of beauty is merged in the great Creator! It is imagination that sees the "books in the running brooks, sermons in stones, and good in everything." They are not there to the dull eye of sense. Imagination rightly pictures them there.

Did fancy ever have a finer scope than when revelling amid the endless variety of nature's exhibitions? Variety infinite, grave, gay and fantastic, yet all harmonious and perfect.

The intellect here enjoys its finest field for effort. The lowest grade may find all things suited to its development and capacity. The noblest intellect finds its efforts baffled on the minutest atom. It falls back, and tries its powers on broader and more open fields. Here it expands with the ever expanding scene. It may satisfy itself in luxurious ease, in pursuing at leisure the ever varying scene of knowledge already gained, or it may apply whip and spur and leap the opposing barriers that limit the explored fields, and bring back, with exhausted human powers, fruits from the banks of living streams and fertile vales, that no others have ever seen. But there its vision of utmost powers could descry no limit of new objects to entice pursuit. But human powers languished, and the pursuit must be given over to be recommenced, when this mortal shall have put on immortality.

The effects on the social and moral feelings I need scarcely allude to. Nature rightly studied becomes one vast temple, in which every object leads to adoration and praise. The Psalmist exclaims: "How great are thy works! A brutish man knoweth not; neither doth a fool understand this."

The impression on every rightly regulated mind, in studying the works of God, is the same as reading His word. They both teach the same great lessons. There may be bad naturalists; so there may be bad readers of the Bible. They are bad in spite of the influence, and not by its agency.

Its study harmonizes the action of all the powers. We might enlarge much on this influence, but time forbids. One fact must suffice. You never saw a crazy naturalist. You may search our lunatic asylums, and you will find none. In the thousands that have entered the great lunatic asylum of France, the Bicêtre, not a naturalist was ever found among its numbers. All other classes are found represented there—doctors, lawyers, divines, &c. We, of course, do not mean to imply that a naturalist might not be a lunatic from disease, or from strong hereditary predisposition, or that he might not be from other causes, or that one devoting himself exclusively to one branch might not be. We mean to assert, that nature is so arranged, that when studied as a whole, it requires in its pursuit the conditions most essential to perfect physical, mental and moral development.

It has often been asserted that the pursuits of Natural History were material, nothing elevating, spiritual, refined; all gross, unintellectual, lacking intelligence. If these assertions are intended to mean that there is nothing in the pursuits of Natural History tending to the worse than nonsensical jargon of the transcendental school—that sublimed nonsense that has become so fashionable in certain regions—we admit the accusation as true, and rejoice, more than all, in its truth.

But if it be intended to assert, that there is anything in the pursuits of Natural History tending to interfere with the highest development of that part of our nature that is ever stretching after the unknown and spiritual, that sees in the vast universe the guiding hand of a higher and spiritual being, that checks the flights of the poet, or dampens the wings of imagination, we deny it most emphatically. We talk of *brute* matter. What do we mean? We talk of intelligence. What do we mean by that? We talk of spirituality. What do we mean by spirituality? It would be no difficult task to show that brute matter, as we call it, has finer sensibilities than any that we possess, and entirely beyond our comprehension, with all our boasted intelligence and spirituality.

What do we know of intelligence? We know it only as we see it manifested by actions. We talk of brute material as though it possessed no active impulses, and was insensible to any but mechanical influences, when its sensibilities are a thousand times more acute than ours, and its intelligence is entirely beyond our conception. Pass a magnet over our most delicate parts for sensibility, and over any number of substances, and we perceive no power, but pass it over other particles of brute matter, as we call them, and all are affected by its influence.

We admire the intelligence of the well-taught soldiers, as exhibited in their evolutions and arrangements with perfect precision, but how awkward and bungling are their movements, when compared with those of thousands of materials in their exact transformation and crystallizations! Did a band of the best trained soldiers ever equal, in the precision of their movements, the atoms of water in freezing, or the atoms of common salt in crystallization? Never.

We recollect, several years ago, seeing a company of soldiers return from Florida. The shore was lined with anxious spectators; wives waiting for their husbands, fathers and mothers for their sons, brothers and sisters for the returning brother's embrace. The boat came to the wharf; the command was that no recognition should be made expressive till all were dismissed. The soldiers landed and marched among their friends, and never seemed to know one of the multitude. Many hours passed in public congratulations, before the embargo on human sympathy was raised; but when it was, what a tumult of emotions, and what unreserved expressions of burning feeling!

So the most powerful affinities may be suspended, and atoms in absolute contact know not each other, although burning for embrace, but suspend the foreign command, and what a tumultuous meeting!

The presence of a great man has much influence on our actions. So the presence of certain bodies causes others to arrange themselves in ways they would not without such presence. The presence of diastase with starch causes it immediately to become sugar; the presence of sulphuric acid will accomplish like results, and these substances themselves undergo no change. Who can measure the sensibility that makes the armature of the magnet in New-Orleans feel the impulse of chemical action in New-York, or of every particle of this globe on which we dwell, act in sympathy with every atom in Jupiter, Saturn, or Leverrier, in its almost measureless distance?

All this sneering about brute matter is but a glaring index of unreflecting ignorance, ever ready to vaunt itself on what it does not possess. It would require no long argument to make probable that matter and spirit are the same thing, under different laws; the same as matter under the laws of life is a different thing from matter under ordinary chemical laws. The Apostle says, (1 Cor., 15, 14,) "It is sown a natural body; it is raised a spiritual body." That is, the same body that was natural has become spiritual.

We are told, too, that an accurate knowledge of nature would spoil its poetry. *That* ignorance must be excessive, that could not see the degradation involved in making such an assertion.

What would you think of a man inclosed in a dense fog, and groping about in ignorance of all around him, and pleading for the continuance of this obstruction to his now useless vision, lest his ignorant imaginings might be destroyed, when by dissipating the fog, a boundless landscape would open on his view, materials of exhaustless interest for the most vivid imagination be gathered within his sight?

All that we would desire is, that this subject should be viewed in its true relations. When it is so viewed, the Natural History of Georgia will be developed with rapidity, and her old fields and barren hill-sides will disappear, and teeming harvests, perfect animals, mechanic products, applications of science to useful arts, and high intelligence, shall be exhibited to the inquiring stranger who visits the Empire State of the South.

Who can tell the interest and happiness his intercourse and communings with nature must bring? Does not the man, thus engaged, fulfil the end of his being as a father, neighbor, citizen of a State and country? Is not the world better for his passage through it?

We all have an interest in this development. None more than the inhabitants of a great city. We all depend on the productions of the soil, and whatever gives efficiency and prosperity to the agriculturist, gives wealth and importance to commerce, manufactures and arts.

But if we all had more disposition to commune with Nature, and heed her teachings, we should be greatly benefited. We should often find ourselves amid her silent works, and trace the workings of the hand of God in every quivering leaf, or flitting insect, or shapeless stone. No object would meet our eye in all

Nature's range, but it would speak to us of the God we serve and tell some tale of His benevolence and love. No jarring passions would be generated there. No heartburnings of brother against brother could find fuel there. No grovelling propensities could be cherished amid scenes so lavish of kindness and regard.

As we learned the structure and mode of action of the objects of our intercourse, lessons would become more various and impressive. No listless or careless observer ever felt the full force of that beautiful passage that fell from the lips of Him who spake as never man spake, when he would teach man his importance and impotence in the same lesson:—"Behold the lilies of the field, how they grow; they toil not, neither do they spin, and yet I say unto you that even Solomon, in all his glory, was not arrayed like one of these."

No Egyptian looms could weave a texture so exquisitely delicate and fine. No artist could mould organs so efficient, yet so fragile. No Tyrean dyes could give hues so soft and perfect.

Art. IV.—MORMONISM IN THE UNITED STATES.

THIS has often been styled emphatically an age of progress. Steam-engines and air-engines, magnetic wires stretching over continents and passing down into the caverns of the deep, railways binding together distant communities with the iron bands of a common interest—all these things show a vast physical advancement. No one can doubt that we travel faster and live better than our forefathers. But as regards real intellectual and moral progress, we confess we often know not what to think. The great mass of the community is certainly much better educated than formerly. But then the astounding fact strikes us, that in many places crime increases yet more rapidly than population or education. And we look with fearful apprehension upon that vast mass of ignorance and crime which is now accumulating in the lanes and alleys of our great commercial thoroughfares. The most eloquent writer of modern times has said, "that civilization itself might engender the barbarians who should destroy it; that in the very heart of great capitals, in the very neighborhood of splendid palaces and churches, and theatres, and libraries, and museums, vice and ignorance are producing a race of Huns fiercer than those who marched under Attila, and Vandals more bent on destruction than those who followed Genseric." In times of peace, and quiet, and plenty, they skulk in the recesses of gloomy alleys, and hide their rags and their hunger in filthy cellars. But in the evil days, when civil commotions arise in the State, when want comes like a strong man, then those birds flock like vultures at the scent of carrion. Hardened by neglect, brutal by suffering, they pour forth from their dens, while peaceful citizens look aghast, and wonder whence these hideous objects have come. Like wild beasts within the iron bars of their cages, made ferocious by want of food and of fire, tantalized by the continual sight of wealth which they can never enjoy, it is no wonder that they are dangerous. What would be the result were the police force of one of our large cities withdrawn for a single night? Can imagination conceive the horrors of that night? We would almost as lief have been in the streets of Byzantium when Mohammed the Turk poured his savage hordes through them, as to be a citizen of New-York under such circumstances.

Another fact which causes us to be in doubt as to our real progress is, the recent prevalence among us of so many systems of imposture. The rank hot-bed of civilization seems to send forth poisonous plants even more profusely than useful ones. Millerism, Mesmerism, Mormonism, Bloomerism, and Spiritualism, all have flourished amazingly among us. And these systems of mischievous error and nonsense have sprung up, too, not on some remote frontier where the half-wild squatter seats himself in the primeval forest, not in those States of our Union where the poorer classes can scarcely obtain the rudiments of knowledge, and where a dissolute people scarce bear the weight of the criminal law, but in the most enlightened part of the country, in States which boast of giving to the poorest a free education, which boast that every crime is detected, and that every breach of law is punished. What must we conclude from these undeniable facts? Are we not retrograding in some respects while we are advancing in others? While we have more money and better morals than our forefathers, we do not think that we have a whit more common sense than they, and perhaps even a trifle less. An error now is productive of more mischief than a like error was two hundred years ago. An impostor then extended his influence beyond the bounds of his own neighborhood slowly, and with difficulty. Now every wild and wicked scheme finds its way in a few days to all parts of the civilized world, and everywhere finds persons weak or wicked enough to embrace it. It is true that the antidote flies as rapidly as the poison, yet surely the patient was in a better condition before he swallowed the poison than after he had swallowed both.

Of all systems of error and imposture, we would have supposed Mormonism to have been the least successful among our people. Its doctrines and its formulas are so foreign to our dispositions and habits of thought, that we should never have supposed that it would have gained a thousand proselytes among men of Anglo-Saxon blood. And yet, in little more than twenty years, it has spread all over the globe, into nearly every civilized, and even into savage nations. From the beautiful farms of the great Valley of the West, from the streets of London and Manchester, from the far-off wilds of Australia, from among the dusky nations of the East, multitudes of men are looking forward with eager eyes to that Holy City which is rising by the waters of Deseret. During the first twenty years of its existence, Mormonism has spread more widely than Christianity or Islamism. We believe that Joe Smith has shown as much ability in the invention and arrangement of his system as did Mahomet. In some respects, we must give him credit for more sagacity and energy than the Arabian impostor. He sprang from humbler origin, and had far greater difficulties to contend with than had the Prophet of Islam. Ignorant, poor, and despised, he entered the lists with learning, wealth, and power, and came off conqueror. Who would have supposed that in the nineteenth century of the Christian era, in the very midst of a nation which boasts itself as being the most enlightened on the globe, in the very midst of newspapers, and churches, and seminaries of learning, there should rise up a man claiming to be a prophet from God; that this man should go on gathering to himself disciple after disciple, converts among the rich and the poor, among the learned and the unlearned, until his little band should swell to a great multitude; that driven from State to State, and persecuted from city to city, his followers should gain strength by every removal and every persecution; that they should build a city on the banks of the Mississippi, and rear a splendid temple in its midst; that, deprived of their prophet, and driven from their homes, their mingled hosts, gathered from nearly every civilized people, band after band should cross the great wilderness of the West, should penetrate the gorges of the Rocky Mountains, and there finding a land of promise on the shores of a great inland sea, and inclosed by a huge rampart of mountains, should there build a city of refuge which should be for a sign to the nations from afar; that sending out apostles from thence into all quarters of the civilized and of the heathen world, they should gather to themselves of all tongues, colors, and nations, until they became a mighty people and a sovereign State? And yet this has been, or is soon to be, the history of the Mormon Commonwealth.

Mormonism bears on its face the impress of an Oriental rather than of a Western system. It requires of its followers an implicit reliance on faith rather than on reason. Authority, and not argument, is its stronghold. It demands that all mankind should depend for their eternal destiny upon the simple, unattested word of one man, and that man known in his youth to have been a liar and a scoundrel. We could scarcely have believed that among our skeptical, inquisitive, prying race, such a system would have existed a single day, much less that in twenty years it would rise up and occupy a place among the great religious systems of the day. But if we look a little more closely into its demands, and at the tendency of the human mind, we shall perhaps find a clew to this mystery.

There is a certain degree of dissatisfaction resting on the minds of most persons who hold the doctrines of Protestant Christianity. This feeling by no means arises from the nature of those doctrines, but from a quite different cause. It has been the good or bad fortune of Protestantism, ever since its origin, to be divided into a great number of denominations, differing in very important respects, and often bitterly hostile to each other. But the human mind always desires unity, and is displeased with diversity. As long as reason is regarded as the touchstone of religious opinions, so long will there be diversity of religious belief. The only manner in which unity can be obtained is by giving the manly pride of reason, and by receiving with childlike simplicity the will of God direct from heaven. To a mind wearied by the turmoils of religious factions, and the quarrels of spiritual guides, there remains no resource but Catholicism or Mormonism. Such a mind eagerly desires something which can relieve it of the burden of doubt, some system by which it can devolve upon a priestly counsellor the whole responsibility of its future welfare. Roman Catholicism offers something of this nature, but the stains of blood are yet too fresh on its skirts not to be remembered with horror. And all Protestants, too, have been educated from the very cradle with a holy prejudice against it, which adheres to the mind through after life with a tenacity that nothing can destroy. It is, we think, impossible that any large number of Protestants should become converts to the Romish Church. Our opinion is strengthened by observing what kind of proselytes Romanism has been making of late years from the Church of England. It has gained alone from that branch of the Church which is most disposed to uphold to their highest degree priestly prerogatives, and which is by no means averse to intolerant, or even to persecuting doctrines. Those pages of the history of the Roman Church which are the blackest to us are but an evidence of efficiency and sincerity in the eyes of these men. But by the vast majority of Protestant Christendom, constraint in religious opinions is regarded with extreme horror, and a Church, which has once incurred the odium of persecution, will bear the stains thereof to the latest generation. But from this fault Mormonism was necessarily free. Born but a day, even though it had the disposition, it never had the ability to persecute. It had not to atone for the blood of a St. Bartholomew, nor to wipe out the record of an

Inquisition. Free from violence, it sent forth a persuasive voice, winning those who were sick of the strife of Protestant sects, and who did not dare to apply to divine things that reason which so often deceived them in human things. To such minds Mormonism offered a peaceful retreat in her bosom. She quieted all their scruples, not by argument, but by special revelations from heaven, and her converts, strong in the simplicity of their faith, allowed their reason to slumber undisturbed. With the generality of minds, argument has a tendency to unsettle religious belief. But pure faith, beyond the pale of all argument, holds its votaries with a grasp of adamant. In the midst of perplexing and harassing doubts, when the mind, like the dove sent out from the ark, can find nowhere to rest its tired wings, it gladly looks forward to some sure foundation where it may fold them forever.

Practical and matter-of-fact as we Anglo-Saxons pride ourselves on being, we have yet a great deal of mysticism mingled with it. Take us on our every-day business, and we are coldly practical. We quote the shrewd, icy, worldly-wise maxims of Franklin with gusto, and pretend to be governed by them in our intercourse with the world. But it is useless to struggle against the nature implanted within us. The deep well-spring of feeling, though repressed, cannot be dried up. There is something within us at strife with our care-worn, working-day lives. There is a feeling of the supernatural far below the turmoil of every-day life. With awe we receive the slightest indications of a direct communication with the Supreme Being. Any one who pretends to such an intercourse, no matter with how little confidence we regard him and his revelations, will always command our attention. Skeptical as we may profess to be with regard to such communications, through the silent watches of the night, who does not tremble at the unearthly spectre, though merely conjured up by the imagination? To what tales do we lend a more attentive ear than to tales of supernatural visitants? Among the imaginative races of the East, this propensity to mysticism is carried to an extreme. It has existed there through all ages. It was one of the first symptoms of a corrupt Christianity. Asceticism carried it to the greatest extent. The ardent monk among the rocks and caves of the desert, his body emaciated by thirst and hunger, his mind wrought up to frenzy by impassioned prayer, saw visions of saints and angels, and held many a fierce battle with the tempter in his bodily shape. When he revisited the abodes of men, his body and his mind gave evidence of some awful conflict, and the credulous multitude flocked around him and struggled for a touch of his filthy garments. In their eyes his person possessed a holiness far above the majesty of kings, for he had held converse face to face with his God. The ignorant monk, half knave, half enthusiast, brutal and filthy, was seated upon some Episcopal throne. No impostor pretending to hold intercourse with heaven, has ever yet failed of a crowd of followers. There is something in such an assumption that fascinates by its very audacity. The Roman Catholic Church has made great use of this engine in her operations. Her whole machinery of miracles and legends is arranged with reference to this principle in the human mind. By her images and her pictures, she brings the minds of her votaries directly in contact with beings of a superior world. Her age of miracles is not yet past, and she works one wisely now and then just to keep her hand in, and yet not often enough to make the power too common for vulgar admiration. But in the sternly simple, rigid ceremonial of the Reformed Churches, there are no visible, tangible marks of a communication with the Supreme Being. Everything is purely intellectual, no sensuous object is admitted, and too often the mind, impatient of metaphysics, incapable of severe, searching thought, turns away from the ideal to anything which presents the show of reality. That faith which is cold and doubting, while it listens to the account of miracles performed two thousand years ago, in another continent, and among an alien race, warms into intense life when it hears in impassioned words of the sick made whole, and of the dead raised in our own day and among our own people. We have already stated why this class of minds embraced Mormonism rather than Catholicism.

Mormonism purported to be a revelation from God. It did not reject Christianity, but merely engrafted itself upon it. It calmed the scruples and soothed the dogmatic pride of theoretical believers in the Christian religion. It took not away from them what they already possessed, but offered them a new and more glorious revelation. It treated with respect those venerable names, which even irreligious men consider as blasphemous to deride. It required no one to renounce the faith which he had always associated with the tears of a devoted mother, and with the hoary hairs of a revered father. It only added new doctrines to that faith. It aped the system of primitive Christianity. It had its holy writings, its miracles, its apostles, its prophets, its martyrs, and its community of goods. These inducements it offered to sincere converts. To the ambitious it offered a crowd of credulous dupes. To the avaricious it offered a prospect of unlimited swindling. Thus addressing all kinds of motives to all kinds of men, it is not wonderful that the Church of Latter-Day Saints gathered within its folds men of every name and of every character—the sincere and the enthusiastic, the profligate and the hypocrite, the designing leader, and the credulous dupe. Of these elements was the Mormon Commonwealth composed.

And thus was presented the strange spectacle of a hierarchy and a theocracy established in the great Valley of the West. Such an engine for strong and vigorous government the world has seldom seen. Every act of the government, down to the minutest, was sanctioned by a special revelation from heaven. The Prophet, with a few of his coadjutors, ruled with absolute sway. Sturdy, roving sons of the forest and the prairie, men who had repelled with jealous pride all encroachments upon their personal liberty, men to whom even the restraints of ordinary law were irksome, brought their property and their persons, and laid them at the feet of the Prophet. That proud independence, which would have sternly thrust back all human authority, was bowed to the dust before the awful voice from heaven, and became the willing slave of a profligate despot.

Of the founder of this theocracy we would say a word. He was, undoubtedly, a man of extraordinary ability. How else could it have happened that a poor, despised, wandering profligate, could have raised himself in a few years to be Prophet, Priest, and King of a powerful commonwealth in the midst of our Republic? He presented that union of knavery and enthusiasm which is so characteristic of religious impostors of all ages. We all know from every day's experience that truth is not always the real object of the enthusiast. Self-aggrandizement enters largely into his calculations, and goads him forward with its perpetual spur. Drunk with success, he may at last become sincere, and believe what he teaches. He may regard the impulses of selfishness as the voice of God speaking to his mind. Of such seeming absurdity the human mind is not incapable. Such we believe to have been the history of the career of Smith. His discovery of the Golden Bible was, of course, a piece of rank and deliberate falsehood. And yet we believe that when the prophet-king stood in his island city, before the pillars of his noble temple; when he beheld stretching far through the streets the glittering files of devoted followers, ready to do his bidding; when he thought of the thousands of the converts to his faith scattered over the wide prairies of the West and among the green valleys of the East, and even far over the Atlantic, in the streets of European cities, he was a sincere convert to his own creed, and a believer in his own lies.

We cannot forbear drawing a parallel between the progress of Mahometanism and Mormonism. So long as the religion of Islam was propagated by merely peaceful means, it met with far less success than the Church of the Latter-Day Saints. And yet the path which lay before Mahomet was an easy one, compared with that which lay before Smith. Within the empire of the Sassanides, from the Tigris to the Indus, the Magian priesthood forbade the use of images, and inculcated the doctrines of Spiritualism. For more than two thousand years, the Fire Worshippers of Media had striven unceasingly against the popular inclination to idolatry; and, in consequence, image worship had never prevailed extensively in Upper Asia. When, therefore, the lieutenants of the Khalif preached a yet purer spiritualism than that of Zoroaster, and proclaimed the unity of the Supreme Being, the subjects of Yezdegerd, already partially prepared by their own priests, could readily embrace the creed of Mahomet. As to the Christian East, it also was ripe for a change. An entire alteration had been wrought in Apostolic Christianity. In the minds of the intellectual, it had given place to Manicheism and to Gnosticism, the last feeble echo of ancient Greek philosophy. In the minds of the people, it had given place to the darkest ignorance and the most absurd superstitions. A philosopher who had lived in that age might well have doubted the divine origin of Christianity. Like so many other systems, it seemed to have run its time. It had risen, flourished, attained to its loftiest height, and now seemed sinking into helpless old age and imbecility. Well might the daring impostor, looking out from his sandy deserts, think that the time had come for another religion. He cunningly formed his system in accordance with circumstances around him, and did not attempt to raise men to meet the requirements of his system. He required neither purity of life nor self-denial. He pandered to every vicious principle, and to every baser passion. Ambition, revenge, lust, cruelty—every instinct of depraved human nature was not only tolerated, but even engrafted in his system. Thus was the path of success made easy before the false prophet of Mecca; and his religion went forth conquering and to conquer. From the waves of Biscay to the isles of the Eastern Sea, the Crescent ruled triumphant; and for more than twelve centuries it has stood like a mighty barrier against the Christian and the Pagan world, ever gaining more proselytes from the one than it has lost to the other. Islamism had every advantage of Mormonism. The one sprang into life in the midst of an ignorant people, and waged war with a corrupted religion. The other, slowly and painfully, worked its way into notice in the midst of intelligence and refinement, and waged war with the powerful champions of a vigorous Christianity. Arising from a knot of two or three knavish fanatics, it first assumed the semblance of a social community, and established itself in the State of Ohio, on the outskirts of the Great West. Torn by domestic dissensions, and hemmed in by an unbelieving population, the band of the Saints passed beyond the Mississippi, and pitched their tents in a wilder land. But the rude squatters of Missouri took offence at their exclusive manners, and the stern rule of border Lynch law soon forced them to leave the State. Gathering strength from persecution, they recrossed the Mississippi, among a more friendly people. At length they pitched their tents on the banks of the Great Father of Waters, where its current, yet clear as crystal, flowing from the wild rice lakes of the north, and from under the shadow of lofty pines, winds among the beautiful islands of Illinois. There arose, as if by magic, the fair Island City, destined, as the Prophet fondly hoped, to be the Mecca of a mightier religion, than that of Islam. There, in the centre of the Great Valley, would he send forth missionaries, who should penetrate to its remotest bounds, and gather in thousands of disciples to the Mormon City. And there, it is not unlikely, visions of a bolder nature flitted across his brain. He had risen rapidly from obscurity to eminence. From a poor, thriftless adventurer, he had become the prince of a powerful community. Thousands of swords were ready to leap forth at his bidding. What wonder, then, if the dangerous but dazzling vision had flashed across his mind, of leading forth his faithful thousands, with the Book of Mormon in one hand, and the sword in the other, announcing to the astonished republicans of the West the alternative of death or conversion? And what wonder if there rose up before him visions of glorious conquest and of far-reaching dominion, of the sceptre of empire passing away from the East to the West? What wonder if he felt within himself that it was possible to stir up all the disorganizing elements of the American nation:—the squatter element of the frontier, chafing at the restraint of law, and proud in extreme personal liberty; the discontented element of communism, fretting at its poverty, and looking with envious eye upon the possessions of the rich; the criminal element of our large cities, mad with restraint, and eager for license? What wonder if he, with these elements before him, should form the design of leading forth his enthusiastic followers, burning for action; of proclaiming liberty to the slave, and license to the poor; offering confusion to the restless, and the plunder of wealthy cities to the felon? What wonder if he saw himself founding an empire more durable than that of Mahomet, and building a capital more magnificent than that of Haroun, where, swaying a double sceptre over the minds and over the bodies of men, he might take his place as prophet and king, far above the great potentates of the earth?

But whatever schemes of ambition the Prophet might have revolved, were all cut short by an untimely death. He fell the first great martyr to his own creed. With his fall drooped for a time the fortunes of his disciples. The younger and more hot-headed burned to avenge the death of their leader with the sword. But they were restrained by the prudence of the elders. Fierce dissensions arose among them. Rival claimants aimed at the place left vacant by the death of Smith. For a time it seemed as though civil commotions would rend them asunder. But the angry storms of persecution which hovered around them kept them together. All power gradually fell into the hands of the Oligarchy of the Twelve. The people around them became violently excited. A few Mormons had resisted the officers of the law, and this was magnified into a rebellion. The Holy City was represented to be a very sink of iniquity. A crusade was preparing to exterminate the very name of the Latter-Day Saints from the face of the earth. It became evident that the Mormons would soon have to fight for their City and their Temple, their homes and their firesides. And then they resolved to seek a new abode far from the haunts of civilized man, where the hand of persecution could reach them no more, and where they could enjoy their own religion, uncorrupted and undisturbed by the rest of the world. A spot was soon selected on the western slope of the Rocky Mountains, containing within its bosom an inland sea, with many a fertile valley, and many a clear, winding river. Hither, to this lonely Oasis of the Desert, they resolved to transfer the whole Mormon Commonwealth.

The vanguard left Nauvoo as pioneers to clear the way. Then came the stout warriors, the women and the children, the flocks and the herds. They traversed the prairies of Iowa, sowing and gathering from the rich soil the harvests as they went. The mighty tide of human beings poured over the Missouri, and entered the Great Desert of the West. Slowly and painfully they journeyed forward, as the Israelitish host had journeyed through the wilderness of Kadesh and Tein. Famine and pestilence, and all kinds of suffering, went with them. The vultures hovered over them all along their dreary road. It seemed that, like the Hebrews of old, the generation which had left the land of bondage would perish by the way. All up the valley of the Nebraska, their path could be traced by the graves which they left behind them. Still they journeyed on. The red man molested them not, for, like himself, they had been driven from their ancient homes, and from the tombs of their fathers. They passed through the gorges of the mountains. The last faint echoes of Eastern civilization died away. They had entered upon a primeval land. At length, standing upon one of the western spurs of the Sierra, they looked down with wonder upon the waters of the Great Salt Lake sparkling in the rays of the western sun. Their Promised Land lay before them. Free from all human molestation, they could there worship according to the dictates of their consciences. Soon by the waters of Utah there arose a populous city, and there was laid the foundations of a Temple far more magnificent than that which they had left on the banks of the Mississippi; and the valleys of Deseret swarmed with an industrious and enterprising people.

And now of the Mormon Bible. The world is well acquainted with the circumstances of its origin and publication. We think that internal evidence bears out these facts. It is evidently the work of a more cultivated mind than that of Smith. It has a unity and consistency of design which causes it as a literary production to rank far above the Koran. But here and there appears a shred of coarser material put in by some ignoble hand. These interpolations are undoubtedly the work of Smith. There is no mistaking these additions. They bid defiance to the rules of syntax, of orthography, and of criticism. They stand out in bold relief to the finer material of the work. The fact is well known that the Book of Mormon was written by an invalid clergyman, who had visited those strange mounds which are scattered over the Great Valley of the West, and who had pondered over them 'till his imagination connected them with the history of an unknown and an unreal people. The history of this people is the Book of Mormon. This book, as a work of imagination, does not stand high. It rises but in a few places above the level of not only plain, but bald narrative. In aping the phraseology of the Bible, its author has grievously erred, for the mind of the reader is constantly forced to make comparisons, and always to the disadvantage of the Book of Mormon. The chapters borrowed from Isaiah shine forth like purple among rags.

——"purpureus pannus assuitur, et splendeat late."

At the confusion of tongues, after the building of Babel, a patriarchal community roamed eastward, under the sovereignty of Jared. They at length reached the borders of the Eastern Sea. By the command of God, they built vessels tight above and below like a dish. There was a hole in the top by which air could be admitted at times, and another in the bottom, the use of which is not so apparent. These barks did Jared freight with beasts, and birds, and seeds, like the ark of Noah. Nor was the honey-bee forgotten, long afterwards destined to be the emblem of the Mormon faith. To these vessels did the patriarch commit himself and his families, without sail, oar, compass, or rudder. They were swept by strong west winds across the wide Pacific. They landed on the coast of the Western Continent, then a primeval wilderness, fresh from the hand of its Creator. There they increased and grew till they became a mighty people. Splendid cities spread over the land, tenanted by a swarming population. But they brought the seeds of evil with them. They became corrupt before God. Ambition and revenge hurried them on to desolating wars. The offspring of Jared struggled fiercely for the noble empire founded by their father. Prince set up against prince, dynasty subverted dynasty, son rebelled against father, and brother murdered brother. It is merely the old story of Oriental despotism transplanted to the New World. They gradually lost the faith of their fathers. Ever and anon prophets arose amongst them to warn them of their evil ways, but in vain. They waxed more brutal and more savage. At length all the children of Jared were arrayed against each other under two rival claimants for the throne. Battle followed battle, and slaughter followed slaughter, with fearful rapidity. Neither men, women, nor children were spared in that horrible carnage. The posterity of Jared was cut off from the face of the earth. One of the rival kings perished by the hands of the other, and the survivor fled from his desolate kingdom, and wandered in the wilderness. The prophet Ether engraved upon plates the history of the sons of Jared, and then laid down to die. The Western Continent was again an uninhabited wild.

In the first year of Zedekiah, King of Judah, there dwelt at Jerusalem a godly man named Lehi. He mourned over the wicknedness of his countrymen, and saw that the hour of their destruction was near at hand. He left his house and his lands, his silver and gold, his flocks and herds, and with his wife and four sons, he turned his back for ever upon the Holy City and the Promised Land, and dwelt in the Arabian desert. But he carried the elements of evil out with him. Two of his sons proved rebellious and wicked. After many adventures and dissensions in the wilderness, he received a command from God to depart into a far country. He provided wives for his sons, and collecting all manner of seeds and beasts, the tribe commenced its wanderings. But dissensions attended them at every step of their progress. The spirits of good and evil were constantly at work in this little patriarchal community. Nephi was their Ormuzd and Laman was their Ahriman. The authority of the old patriarch Lehi descended to his younger son Nephi. The ball of brass with its spindles was their pillar of cloud by day, and their pillar of fire by night. Finally, after eight years of wandering eastward, they came to the sea Irreantum, which is, being interpreted, "many waters." There they built a ship and passed over to the Western Continent. The dissensions, which had begun in the Arabian desert, followed the wanderers to their new abode. The children of Nephi and the children of Laman perpetuated the quarrel of their fathers. The Lamanites forsook the ancient traditions and the law of

Moses, and turned to idolatry. With their religion they lost their civilization. They dwelt in the wilderness like the sons of Ishmael, and their hand was against every man, and every man's hand was against them. Between them and the Nephites was waged a ceaseless war. As long as the Nephites clave to the law of Moses, and hearkened to the voice of their prophets, success attended them. But they gradually became corrupt, and fell away from the worship of the true God. In the words of the son of Lehi: "Our lives passed away, like as it were unto us a dream, we being a lonesome and a solemn people, wanderers cast out from Jerusalem; born in tribulation, in a wilderness, and hated of our brethren, in the midst of wars and contentions; wherefore we did mourn out our days." At length the people of Nephi, like the Lamanites, became thoroughly corrupt, and God warned Mosiah and the few who still adhered to the traditions of their fathers, to flee out of their native country. They wandered through the wilderness, and came into the land of Tarahemla, among a kindred people, who till then had been totally unknown to them.

At the carrying away into captivity of Zedekiah, a portion of his people wandered eastward, and arrived on the borders of the Great Sea. There they built a fleet, and passed over into the Unknown Land. But unlike the sons of Lehi, they had brought with them no written records. Their oral traditions were becoming dim and faint, when the communication was opened between them and the Nephites. When Tarahemla first led his people into this land, a solitary and homeless wanderer came to them out of the wilderness. His name was Coriantumr, the last sovereign of the house of Jared, and sole survivor of the ruin of his race. He dwelt among them nine moons, and then slept with his fathers. For many hundred years the dynasty of Nephi ruled over the land of Tarahemla. The original land of Nephi passed under the sway of the Lamanites, and its corrupted people became incorporated with them. The children of Laman became more and more savage. They lost not only the art of writing, and all written records, but all oral tradition. They lived by hunting, and pasturage, and robbery. They ate the raw flesh and drank the blood of animals. Between them and Tarahemla there existed ceaseless war.

About one hundred years before Christ, and five hundred years after the settlement of the land, the dynasty of Nephi ceased to reign, and Judges were over the land of Tarahemla. But the leaven of rebellion was in the people, and they became extremely corrupt. Their external dissensions and their foreign wars waxed fiercer than ever. The Nephites and the Lamanites slaughtered each other without respite and without mercy. The capital of Tarahemla was taken by hordes of savages, and the State was brought to the verge of ruin. But the skill and courage of Moroni rolled back the tide of barbarian invasion, and saved his country. After the death of the aged warrior, the State sunk rapidly to decay. At length the fulness of time was come. Six hundred years had elapsed since Lehi passed out of the gates of Jerusalem, to return no more. Christ appeared on earth. On the night of his birth, the sun went down as usual, but no darkness followed his departure. The prophet Samuel, out of the land of Laman, had foretold this; yet the people turned not away from their sins. Wickedness spread abroad over the face of the earth, though a chosen few still kept their faith and the traditions of their fathers. The children of Laman and the children of Nephi still carried on their perpetual wars. But in the six hundred and thirty-fourth year from their departure from the Holy Land, while they were engaged in ruining one another, they were overtaken by a common destruction. A thick darkness of three hours' duration fell upon the land. One great city was swallowed up by an earthquake. Another was buried beneath a lofty mountain. The waters of the deep covered another. Some were carried away by whirlwinds, and their places knew them no more. The capital itself was burned with fire. When the darkness passed away, Tarahemla was a ruin. While the survivors of that fearful day were yet bewailing the loss of their friends, and the ruin of their country, Jesus himself in a bodily shape appeared amongst them. He reiterated to them the instructions which he had already given to the stiff-necked and rebellious Jews. By the power of his Spirit, the Nephites and the Lamanites were all converted, and for a time peace rested upon the land. But the same causes which have corrupted Christianity in the Old World also corrupted it in the New. In the fourth century after Christ, the old distinction of Nephites and Lamanites was again revived. War was waged with more ferocity than ever. The Nephites continually lost ground. City after city was sacked by the sons of Laman, and every trace thereof utterly destroyed. At length the men of Nephi gathered themselves, their wives, and their little ones together on the hill of Camorah, for a final struggle. There, in the three hundred and eightieth year after Christ, the remnant of the Nephites, two hundred and thirty thousand in number, engaged the whole host of the Lamanites. And there, after a sanguinary struggle, the very name and remembrance of Nephi perished from out the land. Moroni, the son of Mormon, alone survived. Having engraved this record on plates of gold, and having collected all the plates on which was engraved the history of his fathers, he hid them in the hill of Camorah, the great tomb of his race, and then like Coriantumr, the son of

Jared, he wandered forth to die alone. With him perished the civilization and the Christianity of the Western Continent, and none save the Lamanites were left to inhabit the land. Such is the record of the Book of Mormon.

We look with astonishment at the progress of this wonderful people. Transplanting the institutions of the mystic East into the practical and active West, reviving the old Hebrew theocracy among the backwoodsmen of the Mississippi, uniting the voluptuous sensuality of the Oriental harem with the stern virtue and far-seeing shrewdness of the American republican, these, we confess, are anomalies of which we cannot determine the result. Shall our boasted institutions be overturned from an obscure quarter, whence we now dread no harm? Shall we witness the rise of a new system of religion more energetic than Islam, and more potent than Rome, spreading through our Western Continent, from the frozen zone of the north to the frozen zone of the south, introducing theocracy in place of republicanism, and polygamy in place of marriage? Has the world completed one grand cycle of belief, and are we destined to go back to the patriarchal age, and to commence the great year anew? These queries may seem absurd, but the generation which has witnessed the rise and progress of Mormonism should hesitate long before it pronounces what is good sense and what is nonsense—what is probable and what is improbable.

Art. V.—LOUIS NAPOLEON AND THE FRENCH.

Much has been written and spoken concerning the young French Octavius, who now in the name and right of his illustrious uncle, the great Julius, sways in splendid state the proud sceptre of Imperial France. And yet, after all, few appear to have formed their opinion of old Cæsar's intrepid boy upon grounds more specious than that of preconceived prejudice, or the extreme, deflamatory exaggerations of misguided political zealots. The simple fact that his usurpation was opposed by such seemingly devoted *patriots* as Guizot, Thiers, Changarnier, Ledru Rollin, and Raspail, and indeed that whole race of Jacobin statesmen, who, from the day that beheld the downfall of the Monarchy to the re-establishment of law and order under the strong executive government of Prince Napoleon, were anxiously looking forward to a recurrence of the diabolical orgies of the "Reign of Terror," in the fond expectation of being called upon to run the mad and brilliant career of Robespierre, Danton, Bariere, Marat, Hebert, Chaumette, and Couthon, was of itself sufficient evidence to the political alarmists of Christendom to raise their voices against the enormity and flagitiousness of Napoleon's splendid *coup d'état*. So, no sooner had the young chieftain placed him at the head of the veteran legions of the Republic, and with a firm and daring hand planted the oriflamme of the ancient Empire upon the dome of the Tuileries, than the batteries of the press were opened upon him with all the rancor and virulence that unlicensed freedom could suggest: print followed print, each vying in boldness and scurrility the tone of its predecessor: the seven vials of public indignation were poured out in merciless fury upon the devoted victim; and, in comparison of him, Elagabalus, Domitian, Caligula, and Nero were made to appear pure and immaculate; Dyonisius of Syracuse became merciful; and all the black and infamous names that have disgraced the annals of mankind were invoked, in order to show more strongly, by contrast, the horrid outlines of this huge political Cyclops. Fifth-Monarchy brawlers and philosophic sucklings; pot-house magazines and fourth-rate newspapers; loud-mouthed levellers and red, very red, and right red Republicans, loudly exclaimed against the tyrannical, upstart Government, and professed to shed plenteous tears over the grave of departed French Republicanism. The English lion roared, shook his shaggy mane, and lashed the air in awful fury, only to be followed by the low, muffled mew of the American Jackal.

Such was the almost universal sensation produced by the ascendant of the splendid star of Napoleon. That he has been misrepresented, few who have attentively studied the history and character of the events that elevated him to supreme power, will have the hardihood to controvert.

Who, and what, then, it may be inquired, is Louis Napoleon? He is a worthy scion of the illustrious house of Bonaparte; he is the lawful representative of the majesty of the second, in importance, of the Continental powers; he is the heroic adventurer who, when Anarchy, with dark-brooding wing, was preparing to hover over the nation, fearlessly threw his fortunes into the balance, and caused Anarchy to kick the beam; he is the dauntless spirit who, when all France was dreaming absurd dreams, and foolishly fondling its fingers, courageously acted and executed, and dared to call his actions patriotism; he is the skilful architect who, when the pyramid of society was upturned and resting on its summit, restored it, by replacing it on its base; he is the philosophic statesman who, when called upon to administer the affairs of a great and powerful nation, proved himself as equal to the task as he has been faithful to his trust. But in order to estimate properly the true genius and character of the Emperor of the French, it is necessary to consider them in connection with those brilliant events which, forming the exterior of what is known as the late French Revolution, created him temporary dictator, and subsequently prepared the way to the celebration of that splendid ceremonial which occurred in the chancel of the ancient Cathedral of Nôtre Dame; and in order to appreciate fully the nature of these events, the political reasoner had need to recur to the mediæval period of French history, dating even so far back as the reigns of Henry the III. and Louis the XIII.; where, discovering their origin and studying their formation, he can readily trace their spirit in its progress through many generations of national disquiet, convulsion, and bloodshed, down to its final consummation in the overthrow of the demon of Jacobinism in the middle of the nineteenth century.

The ancient Constitution of France resembled, in the earlier stages of its progress, the Gothic governments of Europe. Its infancy and youth were like those of England. The *Champ de Mars* and the *Wittenagemont*—the tumultuous assemblies of rude conquerors—were in both countries melted down into representative bodies. But the downfall of the Feudal Aristocracy happening in France before commerce had, as in England, elevated another class of citizens into importance, its power devolved on the Crown. France, as will be recollected, was also under the ancient government, an union of provinces, acquired at various times, and differing in constitutions, laws, language, manners, privileges, jurisdiction, and revenue. It had the exterior of a simple monarchy, but was in fact an aggregate of independent States. The monarch was, in one place, King of Navarre; in another, Duke of Brittany; in a third, Count of Provence; and in a fourth, Dauphine of Vienne. These provinces received the designation of the "States-General," when represented in the National Assembly. Their powers, however, from the conclusion of the fifteenth century, existed only in name. The reign of Louis the XIII. saw their political importance partially restored, but they were speedily extinguished, when Louis the Magnificent commenced his splendid career, whose swollen exchequer, disciplined armies, and insatiable ambition emboldened him to dictate to foreign powers, and to centre within himself, in matters of domestic administration, all the scattered rays of civil jurisdiction. Under the lavish munificence and imperial patronage of this prince, whose reign has reflected more glory and dishonor upon the French nation than any sovereign of the long line of Capet, arose talents at once the most commanding, virtues the most specious, and vices the most splendid. The mild Fenelon, the sublime Bossuet, the facetious Boileau, and the deep, impassioned Corneille, were wont to tremble at the same rod which struck terror into the hearts of Pascal and Bruyère, and connived at the ruinous measures of

Mazarine and Colbert. Never were the glory of heroism and the splendor of conquest more magnificently and recklessly illustrated, than by the memorable reign of Louis the XIV. Taxes were levied at the pleasure of the crown; armies were raised and appointed, navies built and equipped at the sovereign's will; and edifices and public works arose in every direction, whenever the Grande Monarque wanted a suburban harem, or desired the wheels of his state coach to run more smoothly between the Tuileries and Versailles. At the suggestion of a fanatical monk, a decree goes forth, under the royal signature, to slaughter the heretics of Languedoc; at the caprice of a ministerial minion, fifty Imperial towns are swept from the list of free States by a single dash of the pen; and, at the frown of a regal strumpet, an order is issued to lay in ashes the smiling villages of the Palatinate. Commerce, agriculture, and the fine arts flourished at home, whilst this stormy son of the sword feasted his legions on the bounty of neighboring and foreign princes. The sails of France were seen on every sea; the vine-hills of Provence offered their maximum yield to the toiling husbandman, and the youth and chivalry of the nation gathered around the standard of the Magnificent, Louis the Conqueror. But the seeds of conquest sown on this, bring forth a rank harvest of evils in the succeeding reign.

No sooner had Louis been borne to St. Dennis, than the regency of the dissolute Orleans commenced. Weak, rapacious, and arrogant, he strove to carry out the measures of the powerful Louis. So the policy of the former administration became the heritage of the regency. Fleury, as premier, succeeded for a time in repressing the martial spirit of the nation, and strove by every measure to direct the energies of the State to the cultivation of the arts of peace; but no sooner had the regency expired, and Louis the XV. ascended the throne, than the torch of war was kindled anew, and the veteran armies of France, assembling under the labarum of her ancient kings, and conquering with the valorous Saxe, at Fontenoy, carried on war with various success in Holland, till hostilities were concluded by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Exhausted by conquest, and depressed by a weight of impost and debt, which nothing but its great national resources and industry could have withstood, France at length submitted to the counsels of the wise and benevolent Turgot. But to such an enormous amount had the national expenditure reached, that it exceeded the annual income by 115,000,000 of livres, or about £4,750,000. This disproportion between income and expense entailed upon France all the evils of national bankruptcy.

At this conjuncture, Louis the XVI. came to the throne. The crafty and rapacious Calonne succeeded Turgot as premier; and with all the recklessness of a spendthrift, and the narrow-mindedness of a Parisian banker, whose life had been spent in the petty details of commerce, was self-sufficient enough to take under his conduct the regulation of operations so extensive as that of a vast and complicated system of national finance. He failed completely; and with him the entire credit of the nation. There was now but one way by which France could hope to find relief from the burden of her present financial embarrassments, which was to guarantee her ruined credit by the sanction of the national voice; and that voice could only be collected by means of the States-General, which was a dangerous method, as the resumption of their ancient power and privileges, which had for nearly two centuries been usurped by the Crown and the Parliament of Paris, would, by altering the established order of things, bring about fearful changes, and sow the seeds of civil commotion. But, being the only constitutional method, an Assembly of the Notables was therefore summoned for this purpose by the king. This Assembly partook of the nature of a privy council, taken from the body of the nation, to advise the sovereign in all great emergencies. With the dissolute Calonne at their head, they began to concert measures for disbursing the liabilities, and restoring the bankrupt credit of the nation. The most specious and plausible method of accomplishing this, and which was urged with great spirit and address by Calonne, was an equalization of imposts, and the abolition of the pecuniary exemptions of the nobility and clergy. This measure, at once hateful to the nobility, odious to the great body of the people, and stoutly opposed by the Notables in council, brought the powers of government in direct conflict with the national will, and hurled the wily minister from his seat in the royal cabinet. This event, unimportant as it may at first sight appear, constitutes the initial link of that memorable chain of causes which eventuated in the terrible convulsion of May the 5th, 1789.

The succeeding ministry, impressed with high notions of the royal prerogative, and ambitious of signalizing their administration, by making open opposition to the popular will, feared not to follow in the footsteps of the exiled Calonne. But public opinion had been restored by the bold opposition assumed by the Notables towards the government, and the spirit of the whole nation was aroused to the importance of now interposing its voice. The Parliament of Paris accordingly contended for a share in the sovereignty, which, if admitted by the Crown, would have amounted to an absolute negative upon all its acts. It was, therefore, boldly opposed by the ministry; but the Parliament openly withheld compliance, and went so far as to refuse the registration of the royal edicts, resolutely affirming that no imposts could be levied on the nation without the consent of the representatives of the departments, and demanded for that purpose an immediate convocation of the States-General. For this contumacy, they were banished to Troyes, and the Cabinet, with a view of carrying out its financial scheme, *had recourse to a forced registration* in order to meet the urgent claims against the State. The nation was thus taxed at the pleasure of the Crown.

At this juncture of affairs, M. Necker, a successful and retired banker of Paris, though possessed of no enlarged views of policy, and destitute of those great qualities of understanding so serviceable to States in periods of convulsion, was summoned to the council board by the king: but with all his distinguished virtues and mature experience, his wise policy was unavailing in the terrible crisis that was then near at hand, and preparing, like a violent tornado, to burst in fury upon the nation. The spirit of disaffection had made its way into the provinces, and they were preparing to march large armies to the rescue of their deputies, when Louis, for the first time, discovering the temper of the nation, and regretting the folly he had committed in summoning the Assembly of the Notables, consented, at the instance of Necker, to a convocation of the States-General. For two hundred years their voice had been silent in the councils of the nation. The Parliament of Paris had, during that long interval, legislated for the Provinces, and, in conjunction with the Crown, had wantonly usurped the constitutional privileges of these ancient and powerful corporations. They met: and ever memorable will be the epoch which that meeting dated in the annals of the human race. The States of Dauphine, Languedoc, Velay, Provence and Bretagne, elated with visions of future glory by the reintegration of their ancient liberties, promptly assembled their deputies at Versailles in obedience to the commands of the King. This body, thus assembled, was under the ancient constitution a sovereign, constituent *Legislature;* but having been deprived by the downfall of the Feudal system—of which they were powerful and independent feuds—of all authority in the administration, and their power having devolved of necessity on the Crown and the Parliament of Paris, their reassemblage constituted them immediately a National *Convention,* vested with plenary powers to reform and organize the government on such principles as best suited the exigencies of the times. The meeting, then, of the States-General constituted what is known as the "Revolution," inasmuch as it effected a total and radical change in the forms and spirit of the Constitution.

Events succeeded the most momentous and unexampled in the history of mankind: the nation was on the brink of civil war; the king declared the States-General dissolved; the Third Estate boldly replied, "The nation assembled have no orders to receive;" and declaring themselves a National Assembly, proceeded to the abolition of orders, the equalization of imposts, and the union of the Legislature in one body. The king protested; the clergy remonstrated; the nobles frowned, threatened, and shook their fists; but all to no purpose, for the commons were inflexible, and knew that they would be supported by ninety-six one-hundredths of the nation. Louis, as a dernier resort, summoned the National Guard to the rescue of the Crown. It ingloriously deserted: Paris revolted: the Bastile was stormed: the King submitted. Then commenced the infernal saturnalium of the Bloody Reign; but its details are foreign to the purpose of this rapid sketch. Suffice it to say, after having made an experiment of every form of government, and rioted in every imaginable excess, France found herself, at the end of fifteen eventful years, quietly sheltered under the merciful despotism of Napoleon.

Napoleon, with the exception of a few unimportant alterations, effected no fundamental changes in the Constitution framed by the Assembly at their memorable meeting in 1789. It is true he struck out the importance of the departments from the chart of the Constitution, but this was merely in reference to their corporate capacity as formidable *political* bodies. In all that related to internal regulation and civil jurisdiction, they retained the essential rights of sovereignty. He saw the absolute necessity of establishing for France a strong, consolidated government. Her condition, both physically and morally, demanded it, and he shaped his policy accordingly. The military genius of this wonderful man has been deservedly enthroned along with that of Alexander, Cæsar, and England's Oliver; yet, splendid as it was, it pales before the lustre of his great civil talents. From the polity and laws which he framed for France, a body of political doctorine could be extracted, which, if adopted and practised, would render the French the most powerful nation on the globe. But with Napoleon fell the greatness of France; her liberties still survived, but the condition of their existence was inseparably connected with the energy of a powerful executive arm. Like Cæsar, Napoleon had been borne into power upon the swollen crest-wave of democratic frenzy, and when the tide began to ebb, and threatened to leave the shore strewn with wrecks, he coerced it by the force of despotism, and securely moored the vessel of State in the dock of public safety. Had the affairs of Europe, at his accession, been more settled, and had not forced upon him the necessity of pursuing a stupendous scheme of conquest, he would have early rescued France from the abyss in which she had been plunged by the National Assembly, and restored her to the liberties she enjoyed under the ancient line of Capet. But the vessel had been loosed from its moorings, and when the storm set in, none better than Napoleon could so well exclaim with old Julius to his pilot, "*Quid times? Cæsarem vehis.*" The Constitution of France underwent no important changes during the Bourbon and Orleans dynasties that immediately succeeded the fall of the Empire; there was the same powerful central government; the same subordination of elections; the same deaf ear to the appeals of eigty-four enslaved provinces. The Executive had the appointment of every officer of government, from the penniless peer who legislated for a nation of paupers, down to the liveried postillion who fed the royal horses, or the ragged peasant who broke stones on the national highway. Louis the XVIII., though an able, energetic, and resolute prince, just in his administration, straightforward in his measures, and liberal in his policy, possessed no seat in the affections of the people; his throne had been erected upon the bayonets of powerful States, sworn to preserve the balance of power, and he had committed the unpardonable crime, in the eyes of the multitude, of ordering the effigies and statues of the great Napoleon to be removed from the public places, and of causing to be effaced every print that showed his noble brow. Louis, indeed, knew and felt that the current of national feeling was running strongly against him, and with all that excellent good sense which characterized his whole reign, he fortified himself behind the bulwark of the Constitution which he had given the people at his accession, and remained perfectly passive, without making a single stretch of prerogative to uphold the honor of the white flag that waved above him. He saw that the nation were paying an annual capitation tax of thirteen *per cent.;* he saw that thirty millions of artisans and agriculturists were reduced to a worse than political Helotism by several hundred thousand city bankers, lawyers, clerks, and government employees; he saw that the National Guard and a revolutionary press occupied thrones, the one on his right hand, the other on his left, but dared not lift the executive arm against any of these monstrous abuses, lest he should, thereby, destroy the well-adjusted balance of political evils, and precipitate the nation into all the horrors of a second Reign of Terror. He had, accordingly, to address the army, the press, and the mob, in language not unlike this—Gentlemen, we are all kings; you derive your authority from one source, I from another; your thrones are strong, gentlemen, and I respect them; your power is august, and I honor it; but, gentlemen, you are only kings of *France;* I am Louis, King of *Paris*, by the mass, gentlemen. Well did the Fourteenth Louis make the boast—"I am France;" but with a far greater approach to truth could the Eighteenth of that line declare himself to be Paris, and thereby show his superior power.

So great had become the centralization of power under the Restoration, that Paris not only became France, an *imperium in imperio*, but aimed to be, and attained its aim, what ancient France never aspired to be. Paris ruled in the nursery and drawing-room; Paris reigned in the school and university; Paris was omnipotent in the splendid ceremonial of private life, and regulated the finances of distant provinces; Paris prescribed patterns for the belles and beaux of the provincial towns, and deputed ministers to foreign courts; Paris nominated the police of little hamlets at the roots of Pyrennees, and seated Lafitte at the head of the Cabinet; Paris issued *lettres de cachet* against young Doctrinaries who shouted, "Vive St. Just," and erected ten Bastiles in the Faubourgs of the metropolis.

From the coronation of a king to the breaking of a stone on the national highway, the central government of the capital had the supreme control. Disaffection towards the government soon manifested itself in every quarter, and the Count de Artois only came to the throne to go through with the silent ceremonial of a royal pantomime, and to pave the way to the revolution of 1830, which brought double disgrace upon the nation by placing the sceptre in the hands of the poor citizen king, Louis Philippe, the weak and impotent. But the cycle of revolution had not completed its round in the destiny of France, and the government, begotten in convulsion, expired in convulsion. The cloud that had long been gathering suddenly burst, and on June the 23d, 1848, the streets of Paris were, for the third time, deluged in blood. Now was a third, a fourth, and perhaps a final opportunity offered the chivalrous sons of France to pull down and put up, to adjust and reconstruct the venerable edifice of their Constitution. But why does it still present to the eye of the beholder the same sombre, Gothic aspect, the same massy proportions, and dim, dark aisles that fed the superstition and admiration of the generation of Frenchmen who called the twelfth Louis, king? A complete answer to the interrogatory is furnished by the simple story which recites, that Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, late President of the *Republic* of France, now sits on the *throne* of the Cæsars. Few persons occupy so splendid a place in history as those who have established monarchies on the ruins of republican institutions. To them are ascribed, with greater or less justice, all the essential prerequisites of greatness, and the possession of those high attributes which ever raise men above the ordinary level of their kind: but this distinction is only given to a few imperial spirits, to show, as it were, the capabilities of the individual man, and the high destinies of the race. Thinly, indeed, but luminously, they stand, scattered along the vistas of vanished ages, dating splendid epochs in the history of the race, and illustrating the genius of the respective periods of which their lustre speaks. Over their narrative the historian pauses to dispel any illusion that may possess him, and to persuade himself that he is not losing sight of the actual, and entering on the high field of romance. Great events call forth great actors, indeed; but whether the quality of greatness resides in him who acts, or is more properly ascribable to the *causes* of action, is a mixed question of fact and supposition, which the reasoner is left to solve altogether by the nature of the evidence, as applied to each individual case, and its succession in the order of time. Cæsar was not great *because* Alexander was great; nor was the battle of Pharsalia decisive because the battle of the Ghranicus was so: for, although the truism, that human nature remains always the same, be uncontrovertible, it is still exhibited under so many multiplied and ever-varying phases, that what may be safely predicated of a series of characters, or a class of actions of one age, will be wholly inapplicable, by parity of reasoning, when brought to bear upon the spirit and affairs of another. Wellington did not conquer at Waterloo *because* he drew up his army in the order of battle adopted by Octavius at Actium; but because Grouchet failed to keep the division of the Prussian army, under Blucher, from effecting a nearer approach to the field of battle, and because his soldiers were differently armed from the pikemen and slingers of Augustus. So, in the comparison of the qualities of men and actions, and the features of separate historical events, they must, in order to be properly estimated, be viewed in the order of time, place, and circumstance. As a general thing, illustrious characters are the mere exponents of events, whose history, legitimately connected with the past by a regularly articulated chain of causes and effects, spans the rugged gaps of ages, and dates its origin, perhaps, from circumstance so trivial as a passionate whisper from the lips of beauty, or a silent thought in the brain of a melancholy recluse. The False Prophet kissed his beloved Cadijah, ascended into the seventh heaven astride his favorite Bokrah, returned to his silent cave, and crying, "Allah! Allah is the true God, and Mohammed is his prophet," drew a third of the Eastern hemisphere to his sepulchre, and now prepares to wage a fierce and bloody war with the proud Autocrat of the North.

Angelo did not build St. Peter's; Watt did not bridge the ocean; Montesquieu did not compose the "Esprit des Lois;" nor did Ignatius roll back the tide of Protestantism to its northern bed. Ideas are kings; men, subjects; principles rule; kings obey; truths speak; Gods adore. Louis Napoleon is the exponent of a single idea, the representative of a grand fundamental principle, the embodiment of a great political truth—Conservatism. Not that morbid conservatism which the complacency of republics affects; not that conservatism which democracies shoot out the tongue at, and shout crucify, crucify; not that conservatism which despots worship, and tyrants prostitute: but that pure, healthy, high-toned conservatism which is founded upon the immutable essence of things, and acknowledges in the science of human affairs the existence of a primordial distinction between the idea of an essential political right and an essential political wrong. In this latter sense, the present Emperor of the French is a conservative, and in this sense, alone, is he to be considered *great*, even although by *greatness* be meant the power or faculty in individuals of accomplishing what others, or the generality of men, consider impossibilities; which fact, Louis Napoleon has, certainly, nobly illustrated. A son of France himself, born of high and noble fame, brought up under the shadow of her venerable institutions, rudely ejected from her bosom, exiled, proscribed, hunted down, manacled, imprisoned, degraded by her capricious authority, he viewed the long and varied story of his country, stretching back through centuries of high renown, with the penetrating glance of the philosopher, and the warm heart of the patriot, and read the thoughts of the national mind with a precision and power which his subsequent history alone can adequately relate. The uppermost thought which had been lost sight of, in the whirl of revolutions and wreck of systems, he seized, and displaying it fully before their eyes, the whole nation, with one united voice, shouted—"*Eureka*," "*Eureka*."

Louis Philippe, the unfortunate, had been long sensible of the fact, that the pillars of his throne were fast vanishing into air, and that he must either bring back the truant nation into the fold of the Constitution, or commence to act the spirited king, when, quick, loud, and scathing as a thunderbolt, fell the mushroom monarchy of 1830. With a trembling exile tread, barely escaped with life, the Royal Refugee planted foot on Dover's Cliffs, never to see ungrateful France again. The power of government, for a third time, devolved on the National *Legislature*. The Assembly proceeded, as in 1789, to the establishment of a Provisional Government, and, framing a Constitution on purely Republican principles, called upon the people to ratify it. But long, stormy, and bloody was the debate on that question. While the Deputies in Convention were, in the month of February, 1848, advocating the claims of the Duchess of Orleans, Lamartine, addressing the populace, was calling for a Provisional Government. In March, the National Assembly was ordered to be convoked by universal suffrage, to decree the Constitution. On the 23d of April, the representatives were chosen, and on the 4th of May, the Assembly of 900 members met, amid shouts of "Vive la Republique," and began to frame the Constitution amidst an infuriated mob of workmen and artisans: they expelled the President from his chair, and anarchy, for a time, reigned supreme. The anarchists were put down, and the Assembly resumed their sittings. But the mob were not content; they had not yet seen blood spilt, and on the 23d of June, so fearful had their power become, that the Assembly ordered General Cavaignac to declare Paris in a state of siege, and to disperse the mob at the point of the bayonet. But this huge army of Red Republicans could not be intimidated by mere threats. Changarnier, at the head of the National Guards, and supported by Cavaignac, marched against the insurgents, and commenced a fierce attack upon the barricades, which was carried on from street to street, during three horrible days. The arms of the Assembly prevailed, and until Louis Napoleon was inaugurated President, the sword was the only authority known in Paris.

The cardinal political principles of the Constitution, decreed by the Assembly, were Democratical government, Universal suffrage, and the Sovereignty of the people. The first recognized authority was the National *Legislature.* On the 28th of October the election for President took place, and Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte obtained 5,584,520 votes out of 7,426,252 *persons* who voted, Gen. Cavaignac having 1,448,302; Ledru Rollin, 371,431; Raspail, 36,964; Lamartine, 17,914; Changarnier, 4,687; *showing a clear majority of two million in favor of Napoleon.* Never was success so complete as this. The elder Napoleon himself, with fewer and weaker competitors, received not such a vote—and making allowance for increase of population, the vote is still larger. The statistics show that at the Consulate, for eight years, he obtained 3,012,569 votes; at the Consulate for life, 3,578,259; Hereditary Empire, 3,524,244.

How, then, in view of these facts, can it be said that the pride and chivalry of France have been humbled in the success of Napoleon? Or is it not properly this charge, but another and graver, that *he violated his oath to the Constitution*, which is preferred against him? He did not violate one article of that charter so long as his powers as Chief Executive of the Republic, and vested in him by that instrument, were not violated and attempted to be usurped by the other co-ordinate branch of the government, the National *Legislature;* and it was only to save himself, to preserve the Constitution, to deliver France from the misrule and anarchy of a turbulent Assembly of fierce Jacobins, that he took a firm and decided stand, and asserted the superior power and importance of the Executive over the Legislative Department of government, whenever, in the course of affairs, their separate powers are brought to conflict and contend for the mastery. The immediate cause of this violent rupture between these two branches of the sovereign power seems to have been, that a celebrated orator of France, and at that time member of the Legislature, being arrested for debt, was condemned to be imprisoned by the judgment of the Court of Justices; the prisoner pleaded that his dignity as Deputy of the Chamber exempted him from arrest; that the order of the court was executed, and the Legislature then in session deeming it to be an indignity upon them, declared the judgment of the court null, and demanded the release of the prisoner. The President interposed, and held that the National Legislature had no authority to set aside the sentence of a court, sitting as a court of law on criminal cases. This was but the commencement of a fierce and bitter contest kept up between these two branches of the National Sovereignty. The President, finally discovering that the matter was reduced to the plain question of destruction to one or the other of the powers, prepared himself to meet with boldness the attacks of the Legislature, and to put down the bold encroachments of that body; and the only effectual and expedient method of accomplishing this resolve, was to make bare the executive arm, and preserve law and order at the sacrifice of the most dangerous, rapacious, and least conservative of all the divisions of the sovereign authority. By assuming this hostile and independent attitude, he subjected himself to all the chances of defeat and the keen blade of the assassin: he, accordingly, threw himself upon the nation, and arraying him on the side of law and order, drew himself up in all the collectedness of his might and power, resolving to live or die with France. In him Conservatism gained a signal triumph, and in the month of December, 1852, he showed her beauty to the world. Jacobinism received a deadly wound; Anarchy was condemned to swallow the hemlock she had in preparation for a nation of sufferers; the fierce spirits of Democracy were consigned to their abodes in Avernus; the stirring drama was concluded, and the curtain fell upon Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, nobly sustaining the character of *Prince President* of the Republic of France. Call it tyranny, call it the despot's rule, or what not, ye boasted advocates of a liberty which the very saints of Paradise themselves dare not claim of the Omnipotent; but forget not that *principle* is power; law is might; and that, to all systems, from the splendid gyrations of the planets down to the authority that rules the fireside of the humblest cottager, there must be *one* acknowledged, undivided power; *one responsible*, individual head; *one* efficient, authoritative, and controlling will. Sovereignty is a unit; it cannot be divided without the annihilation of its very essence: it must, in order to perform an act, have *adjuvants*, but this only in the sense and manner that the Deity made ministers of the elements in the formation of the worlds. Governments are trusts, indeed, and of high responsibility; but whether that responsibility be due to the *opinion* of the governed or to the *authority* of the governing power, based upon *law*, and *constitutionally* expressed, is a question which Christendom is now fearfully putting to the test. The Emperor of the French has followed closely and strictly the course of events, and when, for a moment, he opened up a new channel for the foaming current of the national mind, it was not with a view to coerce or restrain, but to follow and direct. Cromwell dissolved the Long Parliament with the pikemen of the Covenant at his heels, and was not ashamed of the title of "King Oliver;" and, than his, when did England know a reign brighter and more prosperous? Napoleon the Great abolished the Council of Five Hundred, and ascended the throne by three successive steps; and when was the dominion of France, "above low-water mark," more splendid and respected? And now that the capable and spirited Octavius has won the confidence of the nation, seated him on the throne where the great Julius sat, and drank confusion to all her enemies, what may not be the destiny of France?

To compare Louis Napoleon to his illustrious uncle would betray the veriest stupidity; but it is by no means doubtful that he may not do great things for France, and bequeath his country a reign which will date a bright and memorable epoch in her annals. He may be aptly likened to the rippling woodland streamlet, meandering through peaceful meadows; his uncle, to the fierce mountain torrent, dashing, foaming, thundering, and bearing everything before it in its impetuous course. It was the destiny of the elder Bonaparte to be born in a remarkable age of remarkable men and stirring events: he was educated in a grand school, and grandeur became the quality of all his actions: he conquered, because to conquer was the fashion of the age; he grasped the sceptre and wore the crown because all men essayed to become kings; and he fell because he ceased to be conservative when conservatism was the order of the day. But viewed as a mere man, apart from any connection with the splendid part he performed in that most magnificent and imposing drama that has ever been produced on the theatre of the world, he is still that same mighty spirit that animated conquering armies, and made laws for vanquished Europe. Great in prosperity, he was not the less so when the dark hour of adversity came on; and now, after the lapse of more than a quarter of a century has placed its seal upon his tomb, Napoleon the Grand still controls the destiny of France. Events, great indeed, introduced him prominently upon the stage; but, with the power of a magician, he no less gave birth to mighty events. Louis Napoleon, the third of the line of Bonaparte, is strong where his great uncle was weak; he possesses judgment where, in the mental characteristics of his uncle, preponderated invention, combination, conception, order, volume, power; but the nephew is not deficient in that high spirit for military affairs, which has been considered, with not the greatest justness, the grand distinguishing characteristic of the genius of the uncle, and which has assigned him a position rather among great soldiers than among great statesmen and civilians. Grandson of the virtuous, spirited, and unfortunate Josephine, son of the brilliant Hortense and capable Louis, nephew of him who never knew his equal, the present Emperor of the French boasts the highest blood that ever trickled through mortal veins.

He now occupies a commanding position before the world, and in these troublous times, when ancient landmarks are being upheaved, and all that is sacred and venerable is crumbling beneath the cankerous touch of a merciless innovation, what is to be the probable course he has marked out for himself, is highly problematical, and will perhaps be determined only by the current of coming events; but for the glory and integrity of France, it is to be hoped that he will fortify himself upon the high conservative ground he has already so nobly assumed, and leading back the errant nation to the Constitution of the ancient Empire, open up a high and brilliant career of honor, grandeur, and prosperity to a nation which has, for more than a half century, been given over to assassinations, bloodsheds, and devastating revolutions.

His policy is peace; his rule is conservatism; his ambition that of a spirited prince, who has performed great actions, and is solicitous of the welfare of his country. He may err in the execution of his plans, but the error will be of the head, not of the heart. He may be opposed by fierce conspirators, and those turbulent spirits who are laboring to destroy the repose of the nation, but he is strong in the confidence of the great body of the French people, and his security being the security of France, he will dispense with the sword, and establish his throne upon the strong foundation of the national voice. France, since it ran mad in 1789, has been a nursery of spoilt children, and whenever for a moment the voice of authority has been withdrawn, there commenced an universal tearing of faces and bruising of heads, till the rod reappeared, or the terror of the dark closet and the diet of bread and water restored tranquillity again; and if there be one thought predominant above another in the national mind, it is the idea of a strong central government, powerful enough to keep off foreign aggression, and to put down domestic factions, and sufficiently limited to throw an efficient safeguard around the life, liberty, and property of the citizen. This is the character of the government lately established by Louis Napoleon, and if it be administered in the spirit in which it has been conceived, there is no telling what may not be the height of power and importance to which the French, as a nation, may attain.

Art. VI.—GREAT CITIES OF THE WEST—ST. LOUIS.

No. I.

We intend a series of papers upon the cities of the Great West, which will furnish full particulars of their extraordinary growth in all the elements of population, commerce, manufactures, and general industry, and begin with the city of St. Louis. Our next paper will be upon Cincinnati, and afterwards will follow New-Orleans, Louisville, Nashville, Memphis, Chicago, Pittsburg. The series will then include the greater and lesser cities of the Union, as they are included in the following tables. Many interesting tables will be framed of the value of real estate in the different cities, and its improvement from time to time; the extent and nature of taxation; the results traceable to railroads, &c., &c.

POPULATION OF THIRTY-TWO CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

			1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Portland, Me				3,677	7,169	8,581	12,601	15,218	20,815
Portsmouth, N. H.			4,720	5,339	6,934	7,327	8,082	7,887	9,738
Boston, Mass	1722 1765	10,567 15,520	18,038	24,937	33,250	43,298	61,392	93,383	136,881
Lowell, “							6,474	20,796	33,383
Springfield, “					2,767	3,914	6,784	10,985	11,766
Salem, “	1637 1765	900 4,427	7,921	9,457	12,613	12,731	13,895	15,082	20,264
Providence, R. I.			6,380	7,614	10,071	11,767	16,832	23,171	41,513
New-Haven, Conn.				4,049	5,772	7,147	10,180	12,960	20,345
Hartford, “					3,955	4,726	7,676	9,468	13,555
New-York, N. Y.	1656 1731 1773	1,000 8,628 21,876	33,131	60,489	96,373	123,706	202,589	312,710	515,547
Brooklyn, “				3,298	4,402	7,175	15,396	36,233	96,838
Albany, “			3,498	5,289	9,356	12,630	24,238	33,721	50,763
Buffalo, “					1,508	2,095	8,653	18,213	42,261
Rochester, “	1812	15				1,502	9,269	20,191	36,403
Troy, “					3,895	5,264	11,405	19,334	28,785
Utica, “						2,972	8,323	12,782	17,565
Newark, N. J.						6,507	10,953	17,290	38,894
Philadelphia, Penn.	1683 1731	600 12,000	42,520	69,403	91,874	112,772	161,410	220,423	340,045
Pittsburg, “				1,565	4,768	7,248	12,568	21,115	46,601
Baltimore, Md			13,503	26,114	35,583	62,738	80,625	102,313	169,054
Washington, D. C.				3,240	8,208	13,247	18,827	23,364	40,001
Richmond, Va			3,761	5,737	9,735	12,067	16,060	20,153	27,570
Charleston, S. C.			16,359	20,473	24,711	24,780	30,289	29,261	42,985
Savannah, Ga				5,166	5,215	7,523	7,776	11,214	15,312
Mobile, Ala	1785 1788	746* 1,468*				1,500	3,194	12,672	20,515
Nashville, Ten.							5,566	6,929	10,478
Louisville, Ky.	1788	30		359	1,357	4,012	10,341	21 210	43,194
Cincinnati, O.				750	2,540	9,642	24,831	46,338	115,436
St. Louis, Mo.	1769 1785 1788	891* 897* 1,197*			1,600	4,598	5,852	16,469	77,860
New-Orleans, La.	1769 1785 1788 1797	3,190 4,980 5,331 8,056			17,242	27,176	46,310	102,193	116,375
San Francisco, Cal.									†34,776
Milwaukie, Wis.	1846	9,686						1,700	20,061

Note.—The periods earlier than 1790 are taken from State enumerations, and from other sources of information.

* Population of the settlement. † State census of 1852.

POPULATION OF FIFTY-SIX OTHER CITIES AND TOWNS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR 1840 AND 1850.

	1840.	1850.‡		1840.	1850.
Augusta, Me	5,314	8,225	Johnstown, New-York	5,409	6,131
Bangor, "	8,627	14,432	Poughkeepsie, "	10,006	13,944
Bath, "	5,141	8,020	Schenectady, "	6,784	8,921
Gardiner, "	5,042	6,486	Syracuse, "	6,500	22,271
Thomaston, Me	*6,227	2,723	Newburg, "	6,000	11,415
Dover, N. H	6,458	8,196	Lockport, "	6,500	12,323
Nashua, "	*6,054	5,820	West Troy, "	5,000	7,564
Andover, Mass	5,207	6,945	Whitestown, "	5,156	6,810
Cambridge, "	8,409	15,215	Kingston, "	5,824	10,232
Danvers, "	5,020	8,109	Paterson, N. J	7,596	11,334
Fall River, "	6,738	11,524	Harrisburg, Penn	5,966	7,834
Gloucester, "	6,350	7,786	Lancaster, "	8,417	12,369
Lynn, "	9,367	14,257	Reading, "	8,410	15,743
Marblehead, "	5,575	6,167	Wilmington, Del	8,367	13,979
Middleboro', "	5,085	5,336	Frederickton, Md	5,182	6,028
Nantucket, "	9,012	8,452	Georgetown, D. C	7,312	8,366
Newburyp't, "	7,161	9,572	Alexandria, Va	8,459	8,734
Plymouth, "	5,281	6,024	Lynchburg, "	6,395	8,071
Roxbury, "	9,089	18,364	Portsmouth, "	6,477	8,122
Taunton, "	7,645	10,441	Wheeling, "	7,885	11,435
Worcester, "	7,497	17,049	Augusta, Ga	6,403	†11,753
Newport, R. I	8,333	9,563	Memphis, Tenn	—	8,839
Smithfield, "	9,534	11,500	Lexington, Ky	6,997	‡9,180
New-London, Conn	5,519	8,991	Cleveland, O	6,071	17,034
Auburn, New-York	5,626	9,548	Columbus, "	6,048	17,882
Canandaigua, "	5,652	6,143	Dayton, "	6,067	10,977
Hudson, "	5,672	6,286	Detroit, Mich	9,102	21,019
Ithaca, "	5,650	6,909	Indianapolis, Ia	2,692	8,034

The particulars of our article upon St. Louis are incorporated from the History of St. Louis, Commercial and Statistical, which appeared in the form of an Annual Report in that valuable Journal, the *Missouri Republican*, on the 10th January, 1854, and was afterwards published in pamphlet form by the editors, Chambers & Knapp.

Great, doubtless, was the contrast between the St. Louis of twenty years since and the little French village which in 1804 was transferred to the American authorities; a town not then numbering a thousand souls, whose currency was deer-skins; a town which had only three short and narrow streets, whose outer boundary had just previously a line of pickets bounded by Fourth-street, and whose tenements were those "chinked and daubed" log-houses, with steep and heavy roofs, though not ill-planned to suit the climate, of which scarcely a relic is now left here. Greater still was the contrast between the two, if we go back to the time when Laclede, having with prescient eye selected this spot for the scene of his trading operations, felled the trees for the construction of the first human habitation ever raised here. But great as are these contrasts, they sink into insignificance compared with that between the St. Louis of twenty years since and the same city to-day.

In 1833, St. Louis had a population not much exceeding 6,000, and taxable property valued at only $2,000,000. The whole tax of that year on personal and real property was only $2,745 84, being perhaps a fifth or sixth part of the sum now paid, in several instances, by single individual citizens. The city has now over 100,000 inhabitants, and taxable property which, at a very low estimate, exceeds in value $39,000,000, on which she has assessed this year a tax of $420,000; while the whole receipts into the

---

* Population of township, since subdivided.

† Population in 1852.

‡ Estimated population in 1852.

City Treasury for the year ending in August, 1853, were one million one hundred and twenty-four thousand, four hundred and sixty-eight dollars. Her population is, therefore, now seventeen times, and her wealth nineteen times greater than it was in 1833; both having doubled themselves every five years since that time. Calculating upon the basis of this ratio of increase, the wealth of the city five years hence ought to be near *eighty millions*, and its population *two hundred thousand*; though one-half this increase would be enough to satisfy reasonable anticipations.

Annexed are tables showing the results of the census for the last few years:—

Population of St. Louis in 1820	4,123
" " " 1830	6,694
" " " 1840	16,649
" " " 1850	74,439
" " " 1852	94,000

The assessed value of real estate, as certified to by the assessors, for the following years, stands for—

1840	$8,682,566 00
1842	12,101,018 00
1844	13,999,914 50
1846	15,055,720 99
1848	19,506,497 85
1850	29,676,649 24
1851	34,433,529 21
1852	38,281,668 96
1853	39,397,186 33

In 1833, the tonnage of boats belonging to St. Louis was not 2,000; it is now near 37,000. The fees for wharfage, not then $600, are now $60,000. Her imports, then nothing, are now $917,000. The course of trade here, which showed a movement of goods and produce valued at not more than $5,000,000, now brings to this point the materials of a commerce estimated at $100,000,000. The statistics which show the increase in a vast variety of articles of traffic within brief intervals during the period referred to, are highly interesting. In 1849, the receipts of flour were 396,000 barrels; they were last year 737,000. From 1848 to 1851, the hemp arrivals, including manufactures of that article forwarded to this market, had increased from *two* thousand nine hundred to *fourteen* thousand tons. The movements in dry goods, groceries, and hardware show an increase equally gratifying. In 1841, the entire wholesale dry goods business was transacted by ten houses, several of which kept assorted stocks of other wares, and whose total sales did not reach $1,300,000. In 1852, according to a careful estimate, these sales had increased to $7,000,000. The hardware dealers, who, in 1842, employed a capital of only $96,000, and made sales to an amount not over $185,000; in 1851, had a capital of half a million, and sold more than a million. The imports of coffee, which, in 1846, were 65,000 bags, were in 1851, 102,000. The packages of sugar, which, in 1846, numbered not 17,000, had increased in 1851 to 66,000, and this year will run up to 105,000. Seven grocery houses, which, in 1845, sold goods to the amount of $1,134,367, in 1853 made sales amounting to $5,018,677. During this interval, the sales of three hardware establishments increased from $251,259 to $904,316. Meanwhile branches of business requiring hundreds of thousands of capital, and producing millions in value, have started into existence. Pork-packing, for example, first commenced here in 1846; and now the commerce in provisions passing through to this period, is estimated at $5,000,000.

There had been built by the French a few store-houses, nearly all of which have disappeared, and 1814 had witnessed the erection of the first brick house, though fifteen years after, the number of such buildings was very small. Now it is needless to say that there are thousands of public and private edifices of brick and marble, many of which are distinguished for their magnitude and splendor; long lines of spacious and solid warehouses; elegant and commodious dwellings; fifty church edifices, presenting great variety of architecture; a magnificent court-house, costing over half a million of dollars; a university of learning; two large medical colleges; twelve school-houses; a noble hall erected by the Mercantile Library Association; three spacious theatres; ten market-houses; besides halls, hotels and other buildings, which it is impossible to particularize.

The city having been liberally endowed by Congress with a large amount of lands of great present, and still greater prospective value, has made handsome provision for the education of youth. To this vital interest our citizens are so much alive, that they have cheerfully taxed themselves to add to the income derived from the school lands. There are now twelve occupied school-houses in our city, many of them very substantial, elegant and commodious structures. In these are kept twenty-six schools, attended by four thousand children of both sexes. The value of the lands belonging to the schools is estimated at half a million of dollars; the productive portions of which yield a yearly income of fourteen thousand five hundred dollars. The amount raised for the maintenance of schools by taxation is $28,000, making their entire income $42,000. The general control of the schools is in the hands of a Board of Directors, chosen for the different Wards by popular election, and their immediate direction is committed to a superintendent. The corps of teachers is believed to be very efficient, and the character of the schools such as to entitle them to the entire confidence of our citizens. The school fund proper, looking at the certainty of a large increase in its amount, together with the avails of taxation, furnishes, and will continue to furnish, ample means for giving to the rising generations of St. Louis a thorough education. In addition to the public schools, are a great number of private institutions, many of which maintain a high character, and furnish as complete an education as can be acquired in any of the schools of the East.

The debt of the city is nominally two millions seven hundred thousand dollars. But a very large proportion of this debt, having been contracted for subscription to railroads, or in order to raise moneys with the reimbursement of which individuals who have been specially benefited by its expenditure are chargeable, should be deducted from the amount of the city's permanent debt. The value of the property owned by the city was stated by the Chairman of the Board of Assessors in 1850, at $1,845,304. This property consists in part of lands in the "Common," a tract given to the inhabitants of St. Louis by the Spanish Government, and containing 4,000 acres, a portion of which has been sold by the city. Her present interest in the "Common" has been subject to a rigid investigation, the result of which shows a clear title in the city to over 600 acres, and a probable one to 600 acres more. Should the city, after the settlement of all questions in respect to title, find itself in possession of 1,000 acres, the value of its property in that amount of land, situated as this is, would not fall short of fifteen hundred thousand dollars. It might not, therefore, be unsafe to put a valuation of two millions five hundred thousand dollars upon the corporate property now owned by the city.

Heretofore, the commerce brought to her doors by river navigation has been the basis of her marvellous prosperity. This basis, broad as it has proved itself, is now enlarging. St. Louis is enlisting in her service the steam-car as well as the steam-boat. Her citizens have projected a system of railroads, which will put her in communication with every part of Missouri; and which, by its connection with systems projected in the States adjoining Missouri, will open easy approaches to her from every section of the Union. Soon the Chicago and Mississippi Railroad will give her a connection with all the cities on the seaboard through the Lake lines; the Ohio and Mississippi will do the same for her through Cincinnati; and the Terre Haute and Illinois the same on a line between the two. A railroad to Belleville, continued to Murphysboro', will connect her with Mobile, New-Orleans, and the other points on the great trunk line between the Lakes and the Gulf, east of the Mississippi River. . . . .

West of the Mississippi, the North Missouri Railroad, touching the southern boundary of Iowa, will there connect with a line to be continued into Minnesota; and the Iron Mountain Railroad, touching the northern boundary of Arkansas, will there connect with one line reaching to New-Orleans on the one hand, and with another line reaching forward to El Paso, San Diego and San Francisco on the other. The North Missouri and Iron Mountain Roads will be parts of another great trunk road between the northern and southern extremities of the Union, west of the Mississippi. The North Missouri will cross the St. Joseph and Hannibal, and thus connect St. Louis with the north-western part of Missouri; although it is highly probable that a further and more direct connection between the two will be established within no distant period. Last, but not least, in the Missouri system, is the great Pacific Road, which proposes to connect St. Louis with Kansas, on the Missouri River, at the western frontier of the State, and to branch, in a south-westerly direction, towards the south-western angle of the State. Of this road, about forty miles are now finished, and in successful operation. The completion of these roads will develop a vast region of country rich in agriculture and mineral resources, the whole trade of which will be secured to St. Louis. One of them will, it is believed, be a link in the great chain which is to stretch from the Atlantic to the Pacific. We have no room now to dwell upon the momentous consequences to St. Louis of such a connection. We can only remark that our citizens will, it is believed, be true to themselves, and not, through their supineness or divisions, suffer this prize to be snatched from their hands by some other point, with perhaps far less pretensions on the score of position.

To the grounds now occupied by her steamboat and railroad enterprise, must be added the large field on which her manufacturing industry is entering.

The extensive system of railroads, planned and in execution from St. Louis, naturally leads to the inquiry, how far they will add to the manufacturing interest of the city, by making available the mineral and coal, so abundant in the State.

In about thirty-five miles, the Iron Mountain Railroad, to the south, penetrates the mineral region, where is found an abundance of lead, and in seventy-five to eighty miles, reaches the heart of the iron deposits at the Iron Mountain, Pilot Knob, Shephard Mountain; &c. The iron at the Iron Mountain alone has been estimated at 210,000,000 tons *above the surface*—at the Pilot Knob it is no less.

In the immediate neighborhood of St. Louis, (three to five miles on the west side of the Mississippi River, and six to ten miles on the east side,) is found an abundance of coal of fair quality. On the route of the Pacific Railroad to Kansas, is met near the Osage River, distant from St. Louis about one hundred and fifteen miles, a very superior cannel coal, in (comparatively) inexhaustible quantity. There is also indication of iron and copper. On the south-west branch of the Pacific Railroad, the lead and copper region is reached in about fifty-five miles, and, with iron, are to be found in large quantities for seventy miles.

With the junction of the Kansas and South-west Branch of the Pacific Railroad at Franklin, about thirty-seven miles from St. Louis, the lead, copper and iron are brought together with the cannel coal, by a total transportation of about one hundred and ten miles, viz.: thirty miles for iron, and eighty miles for coal.

On the North Missouri Railroad, the coal fields of the country are passed over, and will undoubtedly show the same cannel coal now found on and near the Osage River.

A careful examination shows, that within one hundred to one hundred and twenty-five miles of St. Louis, is found an abundant supply for the markets of the world of iron, coal, lead and copper. In addition, may be mentioned kaolin, nickel, cobalt, manganese, &c., &c. Within the same circle is embraced a large proportion of agricultural land, especially known for the production of tobacco and grain. An abundance of timber is to be found—oak and yellow pine at the Marameo and Gasconade.

Beyond this circle of one hundred and twenty-five miles, the railroads now in progress to the east, northeast, west, northwest and southwest, pass through rich and fertile prairies, with abundance of timber, showing to the eye a certain return in agricultural products, and to the more observant judgment, other elements of wealth. In the extreme southwest part of this State is now found, on the Southwest Branch Railroad, abundance of lead and coal, and abundant water power. Of the route to the south, beyond the Iron Mountain, not so much is definitely known, but late surveys show much of value for local business, in addition to its importance as a means of transportation north and south, west of the Mississippi, concentrating all routes east and west.*

To what we have so often said of the mineral wealth of the region of which St. Louis is the centre, we can now add only, that there is now every indication that this wealth will be developed; and that Missouri will be, not long hence, as much distinguished for her furnaces, forges and foundries, as she now is for her farms and steamboats. In our own city, though manufactures have not assumed that relative importance which they have attained in some of our sister cities, there are some manufacturing establishments which rank second to none in the Union. Of these, we have obtained some statistics, which we publish, in the belief that they will both interest and surprise those who have regarded St. Louis as a purely commercial city.

In nothing has the advance of the city been exhibited in a stronger light, than in the changes in the value of real property, within or near it. Lands which, not *fifteen* years ago, were sold at prices then deemed fair, but not higher than *fifty* dollars an acre, now readily bring *five thousand*. Rises so astonishing, and so well sustained, have no parallels, at least out of California. That they are so well sustained, with a continual upward tendency, now as strong as ever, is one among many proofs of how solid are the foundations on which rests the prosperity of our city.

Meanwhile, numerous improved communications with the country adjoining St. Louis have been opened. Ten macadamized or plank roads, besides other roads, furnish easy access to different parts of the country; and the neighborhood of the city, abounding as it does in spots remarkable for their rare natural beauty, and affording charming sites for rural residences, is being fast embellished with cottages, villas, and ornamented pleasure grounds, the evidences of wealth, luxury and taste.

Here stands a city, enjoying far beyond any other city of the same magnitude or pretensions, the advantages of that inland navigation, compared with which even our vast foreign commerce is sinking into insignificance. It has five thousand miles of that navigation belonging peculiarly to its own waters, with ten thousand miles of coast, yielding up the products of an immense and fertile region, for which it furnishes a thousand outlets. To these may be added the forty thousand miles more of navigable rivers, which connect with St. Louis. Soon the vast means of communication furnished in this way to our city, will be enlarged by the completion of twelve hundred miles of railroad already begun or projected within the borders of the State, and connected with a net-work of similar roads stretching to every point of the Union; in one direction to the Gulf of Mexico, in another to the head waters of the Mississippi, and in a third to Labrador in the far east, and to San Francisco in the far west. Through her gates will pour the commerce of the Pacific, of India, and of the isles of the ocean on the one hand, and the commerce of the Atlantic and of Europe on the other. Stripping from her all which may be considered as accidental or adventitious—all of which jealous and more fortunate rivals may by possibility deprive her—still she is left the commercial centre, the natural mart of 760,000 square miles of territory, full of mineral and agricultural resources, and capable of sustaining in vigorous life a population of a hundred millions. What bounds, then, shall be assigned to the growth of St. Louis, when all the capacities of that country, whose trade can in no event be diverted from her, shall have been fully developed? When, in addition to the surplus products of that territory of which she must be the entrepot, she shall become, as she may, the great distributing agent for the West and for the East? In a word, the commercial emporium of the United States. What shall forbid an accumulation here of inhabitants, beyond anything of which we have authentic records? Millions upon millions, until there shall have sprung up here a city containing hundreds of square miles, with an area even then affording but reasonable accommodations for the vast multitudes collected within it. A city with quays and warehouses, stretching interminably in lines, which, still unbroken, fade out of sight in the dim distance. Of course, such visions relate to the future; but that future, midst the growth of such a nation as ours, cannot be long postponed. Meanwhile, the present generation will witness a progress with which it may well be content. That progress, it is true, will depend much upon the enterprise and energies of our citizens. We are fully aware of this truth, while we repeat the expressions of our confidence in that progress. For we fully rely on it, that its citizens will be true to their city and themselves: alike the thousands who are now here, and the hundreds of thousands still to come hither. That may be no idle dream which conceives for St. Louis the most exalted destiny; which, with a just prophetic forecast, transforms the humble hamlet of Laclede into the future Metropolis of the New World.

To show the business of the year, we compare the receipts of some of the leading articles, and give the increase and decrease, as follows:—

	1852.	1853.	Increase.	Decrease.
Tobacco, hhds	14,053	10,102		3,951
" boxes	12,386	10,528		1,858
Hemp, bales	49,122	63,350	14,228	
Lead, pigs	409,314	442,218	32,904	
Flour, bbls	131,333	200,203	68,870	
Wheat, bushels	1,591,886	2,077,427	485,541	
Corn, sacks	344,720	459,192	114,472	
Oats, sacks	323,081	464,062	140,981	
Barley & Malt, sks	47,264	62,885	15,621	
Pork, bbls. and trs	66,306	78,354	12,048	
Lard, " "	42.515	35,168		7,347
Lard, kgs., cns., &c.	11,815	16,889	5,074	
Whisky, bbls	46,446	51,207	4,761	
Hides	97,148	101,440	4,292	
Bagging, pieces	3,650	2,326		1,324
Bale Rope, coils	42,121	58,437	16,316	

In the article of flour, we do not embrace, in the above table, the increased amounts from country and city mills, the former of which came in wagons. The difference will probably sum up $500,000. Hemp, with the enhanced prices, will show an equal gain, and wheat more. Taking the business generally of the produce and grocery markets, the excess of the year just closed over the transactions of the last, will range between three and five millions of dollars.

TABLE OF MONTHLY RECEIPTS

At the Port of St. Louis, for the year 1853, showing the amounts from each river separately, and the grand total of each article. In this compilation, the Upper and Lower Mississippi are embraced under one head, as are also the Ohio and its tributaries.

ARTICLES.	Rivers.	Total.	Grand total.
Ale, bbls	Ohio	9,985	
	Miss	149	10,134
Barley, sks	Ills	2,572	
	Mo	226	
	Ohio	6,221	
	Miss	53,061	62,080
Beans, pkgs	Ills	760	
	Mo	892	
	Ohio	3,831	
	Miss	4,285	9,768
Bran, sks	Ills	6,891	
	Mo	2,624	
	Miss	23,641	28,156
Brooms, doz	Ills	17,151	
	Mo	25	
	Ohio	1,285	
	Miss	1,602	20,063
Butter, pkgs	Ills	2,622	
	Mo	1,265	
	Ohio	1,483	
	Miss	3,954	9,324
Bark, Tan, sks	Ohio	—	5,276
tons	Ohio	—	12
Batting, bales	Ills	210	
	Mo	140	
	Ohio	3,651	
	Miss	1,508	5,509
Bagging, rolls	Ills	598	
	Mo	1,213	
	Miss	515	2,326
Beef, bbls	Ills	755	
	Mo	212	
	Miss	4,546	5,514
Buffalo Robes, pks	Mo	3,804	
pcs	Mo	—	9,193
	Miss	389	1,731
Burr Stones	Miss	1,731	1,624
Baskets, nests	Miss	—	1,018
Corn, sks	Ills	163,813	
	Mo	31,378	
	Miss	264,001	459,192
Cheese, bxs	Ills	93	
	Mo	8	
	Ohio	26,106	
	Miss	1,039	27,145
Cotton, bales	Ohio	303	
	Miss	610	1,913
Cooperage, pcs	Ills	34,296	
	Mo	16,140	
	Ohio	2,915	
	Miss	44,790	98,141
Cattle, head	Ills	397	
	Mo	1,466	
	Ohio	121	
	Miss	1,187	3,171
Coffee, sks	Miss	—	104,467
Coal, casks	Ills	157	
	Ohio	367	
	Miss	1,787	2,311
Cement, bbls	Ills	3,134	
	Ohio	2,396	
	Miss	1,490	7,020
Cornmeal, pkgs	Ills	199	
	Miss	748	947
Cot. Yarn, bags	Mo	20	
	Ohio	8,500	
	Miss	161	8,681
Candles, bxs	Ills	70	
	Mo	50	
	Ohio	2,475	
	Miss	110	2,705
Cigars, bxs	Ills	38	
	Mo	189	
	Ohio	32	
	Miss	372	623
Crackers, bbls	Miss	—	
Corn Mills	Ohio	12	12
	Miss	784	796
Chains, doz	Ills	—	—
	Ohio	—	—
	Miss	—	—
Clocks, bxs	Ohio	—	—
	Miss	—	—
Castings, pcs	Ills	—	
	Ohio	—	—
	Miss	—	—
Demijohns	Ohio	465	—
	Miss	2,377	2,842
Eggs, pks	Ills	307	
	Mo	1,431	
	Ohio	56	
	Miss	1,020	2,814
Flour, bbls	Ills	45,131	
	Mo	9,264	
	Ohio	2,090	
	Miss	143.718	200,203
sks	Mo	798	
sks	Ohio	36	
	Miss	2,559	3,393
Fruit, dried, sks	Ills	268	
	Mo	6,287	
	Ohio	10,308	
	Miss	9,286	26,149
bbls	Ills	812	
	Mo	4,497	
	Ohio	605	
	Miss	5,436	11,350
Feathers, pkgs	Ills	2	
	Mo	588	
	Ohio	54	
	Miss	625	1,269
Fish, pkgs	Ills	554	
	Ohio	1,275	
	Miss	6,645	8,474
Furniture, pkgs	Ohio	—	
	Miss	—	
Grease, pkgs	Ills	263	
	Mo	157	
	Miss	826	1,249
Glass, bxs	Ills	89	
	Ohio	20.876	
	Miss	304	21,269
Grindstones	Ohio	3,749	
	Miss	80	3,82

Table of Monthly Receipts, (continued.)

ARTICLES.	Rivers.	Total.	Grand total.
Gunnies, bls. & bdls.	Ohio.	2,377	
	Miss.	10,477	12,854
Gunpowder	Ills.	3,718	
	Miss.	7,302	11,020
Hides	Ills.	16,430	
	Mo.	28,778	
	Ohio.	506	
	Miss.	55,726	101,440
Hay, bales	Ills.	7,069	
	Miss.	15,176	22,245
Hogs	Ills.	2,679	
	Mo.	4,350	
	Miss.	13,406	20,435
Hops, bales	Ills.	132	
	Mo.	55	
	Ohio.	924	
	Miss.	73	1,184
Hair, pkgs	Ills.	837	
	Mo.	90	
	Ohio.	3,268	
	Miss.	565	4,760
Hemp, bales	Mo.	59,623	
	Ills.	238	
	Miss.	3,489	63,350
Horses	Ills.	214	
	Mo.	231	
	Ohio.	155	
	Miss.	573	1,173
Honey, pkgs	Ills.	210	
	Mo.	65	
	Miss.	27	302
Iron, bdls	Ills.	—	—
	Ohio.	—	—
	Miss.	—	—
pieces	Ohio.	—	—
bars	Ohio.	—	—
	Miss.	—	—
pckgs	Mo.	—	—
	Ohio.	—	—
bar, tons	Ohio.	—	—
pig,	Mo.	—	—
	Ohio.	—	—
	Miss.	—	—
pcs	Mo.	—	—
	Ohio.	—	—
	Miss.	—	—
bloom, ps.	Mo.	—	—
	Miss.	—	—
tons	Mo.	—	—
	Miss.	—	—
Lard, tcs.	Ills.	5,839	
	Mo.	1,533	
	Miss.	4,188	11,560
bbls	Ills.	5,576	
	Mo.	2,514	
	Miss.	15,152	23,242
kegs	Ills.	4,605	
	Mo.	1,945	
	Miss.	6,501	13,051
cans, &c	Ills.	2,148	
	Mo.	978	
	Miss.	712	3,838
Leather, rolls	Ills.	721	
	Mo.	45	
	Ohio.	12,079	
	Miss.	1,821	14,666
Liquors, pkgs	Ills.	34	
	Mo.	28	
	Ohio.	3,351	
	Miss.	6,535	9,948
Lead, pigs	Mo.	5,315	
	Miss.	436,903	442,218
Lime, bbls	Ohio.	194	
	Miss.	8,124	8,318

ARTICLES.	Rivers.	Total.	Grand total.
Meats, pkgs	Ills.	7,378	
	Mo.	3,610	
	Miss.	9,292	20,280
pieces	Mo.	6,284	
	Miss.	1,495	7,779
bulk	Ills.	161,900	
	Mo.	93,595	
	Miss.	239,791	495,286
tierces	Mo.	225	
	Miss.	63	288
Molasses, bbls	Miss.	—	53,554
Marble, pkgs	Ills.	247	
	Ohio.	168	
	Miss.	3,545	3,960
Moss, bales	Ohio.	29	
	Miss.	692	721
Malt, pkgs	Ohio.	430	
	Miss.	375	805
Marble Dust, bbls	Ohio.	75	
	Miss.	130	205
Nails, kegs	Ohio.	53,092	
	Miss.	15,875	68,967
Oats, sacks	Ills.	121,939	
	Mo.	3,910	
	Ohio.	93	
	Miss.	338,120	464,062
Onions, sks	Ills.	1,577	
	Mo.	22	
	Ohio.	30	
	Miss.	25,378	27,007
Oysters, pgs	Ills.	1,018	
	Ohio.	2,272	
	Miss.	3,001	6,291
Oil, pkgs	Ills.	163	
	Ohio.	1,567	
	Miss.	1,139	2,869
Oakum, bales	Mo.	—	596
Pork, bbls	Ills.	34,025	
	Mo.	3,129	
	Miss.	32,365	71,519
bbls., cks. & tcs.	Ills.	3,919	
	Mo.	39	
	Miss.	327	4,285
Pork & Lard, bbls.	Ills.	675	
	Mo.	57	732
bbls. and tcs.	Ills.	405	
	Mo.	380	
	Miss.	1,399	2,184
Poultry, Coops	Ills.	305	
	Mo.	250	
	Miss.	216	771
Paper, bdls	Ohio.	68,168	
	Miss.	801	68,969
Potatoes, pkgs	Ills.	11,103	
	Mo.	675	
	Ohio.	1,409	
	Miss.	59,037	72,224
Ploughs	Ills.	1,104	
	Mo.	109	
	Ohio.	42	
	Miss.	1,032	2,287
Plaster	Ohio.	34	
	Miss.	1,218	1,252
Pipes, boxes	Ills.	55	
	Miss.	950	1,005
Rags, sacks	Ills.	2,420	
	Mo.	717	
	Ohio.	10	
	Miss.	1,320	4,467
Rye, sacks	Ills.	797	
	Mo.	120	
	Ohio.	42	
	Miss.	13,788	14,747

Table of Monthly Receipts, (continued.)

ARTICLES.	Rivers.	Total.	Grand total.
Rope, coils	Ills	32	
	Mo	53,029	
	Ohio	222	
	Miss	5,154	58,437
Rice, tierces	Miss	—	2,862
Rosin & Pitch, bbls	Miss	—	5,089
Raisins, bxs	Miss	—	10,149
Saddle-Trees	Mo	914	
	Ohio	177	1,091
Seed, pkgs	Ills	2,865	
	Mo	1,981	
	Ohio	1,108	
	Miss	15,434	21,388
Shorts, sks	Ills	2,243	
	Miss	2,182	4,425
Skins, &c., bdls	Ills	444	
	Mo	5,007	
	Ohio	245	
	Miss	3,716	4,112
Starch, bxs	Ohio	4,093	
	Miss	42	4,135
Soap, bxs	Ohio	6,189	
	Miss	1,582	7,771
Sugar, hhds	Miss	—	50,774
bbls	Miss	—	13,973
bxs. and bags	Miss	—	40,257
Syrup, bbls	Miss	—	868
Salt, sacks	Miss	—	203,969
bbls	Ohio	—	69,832
Soda Ash, pks	Miss	—	1,085
Sand, bbls	Ohio	94	
	Miss	485	579
Saleratus, pkgs	Ills	1,333	
	Ohio	60	
	Miss	847	2,240
Sheep	Ills	145	
	Mo	1,053	
	Ohio	114	
	Miss	2,012	3,324
Tallow, pkgs	Ills	357	
	Mo	277	
	Ohio	227	
	Miss	523	1,384
Tobacco, hhds	Ills	5	
	Mo	8,078	
	Ohio	47	
	Miss	1,972	10,102
boxes	Ills	180	
Tobacco, boxes	Mo	5,006	
	Ohio	2.063	
	Miss	3,279	10,528
bs., &c	Ills	55	
	Ohio	197	
	Miss	718	970
Tin, bxs	Ohio	19	
	Miss	12,093	12,112
Turpentine, bbls	Miss	—	1,202
Tar, bbls	Miss	—	6,959
Twine, sks	Ills	79	
	Mo	8	
	Ohio	26	
	Miss	14	127
Tow, bales	Ills	141	
	Mo	271	412
Wheat, sks	Ills	455,612	
	Mo	104,817	
	Ohio	10,238	
	Miss	438,768	1,009,435
bbls	Ills	13,412	
	Mo	529	
	Ohio	1,187	
	Miss	2,139	17,267
Whisky, bbls	Ills	20,335	
	Mo	291	
	Ohio	2,127	
	Miss	27,117	49,870
Wool, sacks	Ills	103	
	Mo	1,219	
	Miss	837	2.159
Wine, pkgs	Ills	99	
	Ohio	745	
	Miss	11,079	11,923
Wax, packages	Ills	9	
	Mo	268	
	Ohio	11	
	Miss	159	447
Woodware, &c. dz	Ills	—	—
	Ohio	—	—
	Miss	—	—
buckets	Ohio	—	—
	Miss	—	—
tubs, nests	Ohio	—	—
	Miss	—	—
pails, doz	Miss	—	—
kegs, nests	Ohio	—	—
Walnut Blocks	Mo	—	—

RECEIPTS PER PACIFIC RAILROAD.

Tobacco	48 hhds. and 8 boxes
Lead	1,556 pigs
Iron	88,350 lbs. pig, 530 blooms.
Wheat	3,418 bushels.
Hides	5,200 pounds.
Whisky	214 barrels.
Wood	370 cords.
Wine	9 casks, 7 bbls. and 8 boxes, native.
Hub-Stuff	25 cords.
Hoop Poles	570,000

The above, with the exception of Tobacco, are not enumerated in the general statistics.

HEMP.—The increase of receipts over last year, in this important staple, foot up about 14,326 bales, making an aggregate of 63,450, against 49,124 for 1852. When to this is added the enhanced rates at which the article ruled. (a considerable portion of the crop bringing as high as 20 per cent. advance on the sales of the previous season) a money balance in favor of the present year may safely be estimated at from $200,000 to $300,000. The following table shows the comparative prices of 1852 and 1853:—

	1852.	1853.
January	$75 to $92	$90 to $108
February	75 to 90	100 to 116
March	60 to 85	95 to 112
April	60 to 75	85 to 103
May	62 to 78	92 to 112
June	72 to 88	80 to 105
July	$72 to $85	$95 to $120
August	68 to 87	100 to 119
September	83 to 91	105 to 122
October	88 to 100	110 to 127
November	92 to 100	105 to 130
December	88 to 107	119 to 139

Taking the lowest and higest figure of each year, it will be found that the advance for 1853 is considerably over 20 per cent.; but as this method of computing relative values may not hold good, especially under the circumstances of the present case, we give the above sum, which, embracing as it does the increase in the receipts, estimated at $120 per ton, will hardly be considered over the mark—say three hundred thousand dollars.

Bale Rope and Bagging.—In addition to the increase in the receipts of hemp this season, as compared with last, and the enhanced prices of the article, making a money difference in the operations of the two years, of a quarter of a million and more, as already mentioned, the item of bale rope comes in to swell the amount to a still greater extent. Receipts this year foot up 58,437 coils, against 41,674 last, showing a difference of 16,763 coils. This difference, at the ruling market rates, gives the sum of $17,000, and when to this is added the advance on the whole receipts over the prices of the preceding year, a cash increase on operations, sums up $60,000. Sales during the year were unusually large. Many Southern orders heretofore sent to the Ohio River, were filled at this point—our market offering equal inducement as far as quality is concerned, and superior claim to the consideration of buyers as regards cheaper transportation. Sales ranged from 6 to 6¾, the larger portion at 6¼ to 6½; last year 4¾ to 5½ were the ruling rates. The heavy advance in hemp, of course, led to this result. As well as we can ascertain, the quantity manufactured in St. Louis amounts to from 14,000 to 15,000 coils—of this the Lowell Factory, in the northern part of the city, turned out 11,000, the greater part of which found sale in this market. Missouri rope regained its standard the past season for excellence of quality, and was eagerly sought by Southern buyers. Our manufacturers have certainly equal opportunities to compete successfully with others, and superior advantages in the procurement of the raw material. The demand for Missouri hemp on the Ohio River is yearly becoming greater, owing to the heavy establishments in operation there, and still increasing, in this line of business, as well as in that of hackling hemp for the Northern markets; and if these can bear an extra charge of transportation, there is nothing to prevent entire success in this State.

Tobacco.—Receipts this year show an aggregate of 10,198 hhds., less by 3,855 than those of 1852. Sales at the warehouses (Planters' and State) stand thus: Planters', 3,451; State, 1,895—less than last year, 2,741. The following table exhibits the operations at the two houses for eight years past: -

	Planters',	State Warehouse.		Planters'.	State Warehouse.
1846	2,573	971	1850	4,169	62
1847	3,854	1,235	1851	4,195	796
1848	3,184	1,063	1852	5,776	2,311
1849	4,982	867	1853	3,451	1,895

This staple alone, we believe, of all the agricultural products of the country, shows an important deficit. The cause is to be traced to the limited attention it received from the regular as well as irregular planters. Other articles, at the time of planting, bore more remunerative prices, and to such the labor of the farmer was principally directed.

We believe, however, that the sales at the worehouses in this city for the year just closed, realized nearly, if not quite as much money as these of 1852. With the deficit given, and the range of prices for the season as shown in the following statement, the cash receipts, relatively, may be understood with sufficient certainty:—

RANGE OF PRICES FOR 1853.

	Lugs.	Seconds.	Fair to fine shipping.	Manufacturing.
January	$3 00 to $4 00	$4 00 to $4 50	$4 75 to $5 50	$8 00 to $10 00
February	3 60 to 3 95	none.	none.	none.
March	3 50 to 4 00	4 25 to 4 80	none.	5 55 to 6 00
April	3 50 to 4 75	4 60 to 5 50	5 75 to 6 50	6 00 to 10 00
May	4 25 to 5 15	5 00 to 5 60	5 75 to 7 00	6 00 to 11 50
June	3 75 to 4 75	4 80 to 5 25	5 50 to 6 75	6 00 to 13 00
July	4 50 to 5 60	5 00 to 6 00	6 00 to 8 50	6 50 to 16 00
August	4 75 to 5 60	5 50 to 6 50	6 25 to 8 25	7 00 to 15 00
September	4 25 to 5 65	5 50 to 6 50	6 50 to 8 00	none.
October	5 00 to 5 75	5 75 to 6 75	7 00 to 8 50	none.
November	4 65 to 5 50	none.	none.	none.

Lead.—The following statistics have been furnished by a gentleman of Galena, who is intimately acquainted with this branch of business. They embrace the amounts produced for twelve years past—from 1842 to 1853 inclusive—together with the entire shipments per river and lakes:—

STATISTICS OF THE LEAD TRADE OF THE UPPER MISSISSIPPI.

Year.	Pigs produced.	Equal to pounds.	Price 1,000 lbs. Mineral.	Price 100 lbs. Lead.	Value at Galena.
1842	447,909	31,353,630	$12 65	$2 24	$702,321 31
1843	559,261	39,148,270	12 60	2 34	916,069 51
1844	624,672	43,727,040	16 86	2 80	1,224,357 12
1845	778,498	54,494,860	17 67	2 96	1,613,047 88
1846	732,403	51,268,210	17 33	2 89	1,481,651 26
1847	772,656	54,085,920	19 16	3 17	1,714,523 68
1848	681,969	47,737,830	19 82	3 24	1,546 705 69
1849	628,934	44,025,380	22 18	3 67	1,615,731 44
1850	568,589	39,801,230	24 10	4 20	1,671,651 66
1851	474,115	33,188,050	25 51	4 08	1,354,062 44
1852	408,628	28,603,960	25 87	4 12	1,178,483 05
1853	425,814	29,806,980	24 41	5 50	1,639,383 90
Total	7,103,448	497,241,360			$16,657,988 94

Shipments of Lead from the Upper Mines, during the season of 1853, from March 21st to Dec. 1st.

Shipped via the river.	Pigs.	Pounds.	Value.
From Galena	318,543	22,298,010	$1,226,340 55
Dubuque	43,852	3,069,640	168,830 20
Potosi	23 086	1,616,020	88,881 10
Cassville	14,186	993,020	54,616 10
Buena Vista	2.676	187,320	10,352 60
Shipped via the lakes	23,471	1,642,970	90,363 35
Totals	425,814	29,806,930	$1,639,383 90

The receipts at this port, as given in our general table, aggregate 441,889 pigs this, against 409,314 last year. Of this, 5 315 came from the Missouri, and the balance from the Upper and Lower Mississippi. The Galena table gives the quantity shipped per river at 402,343—deduct from this the Missouri receipts, and the balance, it is fair to suppose, came from the lower mines —say 34,231 pigs.

Flour.—Transactions in flour, as per table, will be found far in advance of those of last year —say 68,870 bbls., to which must be added 3,393 sks., equal to 1,700 bbls.—making the difference between the two years 70,570 bbls. Total aggregate of receipts, per river, 200,293 bbls., and 3,393 sks., last year 131,333 bbls. Of these receipts, 45,131 bbls. came from the Illinois River, 9,264 do. and 798 sks. from the Missouri, 2,090 do. and 36 sks. by Ohio boats, 143,718 do. and 2,530 sks. from the Mississippi. Scarcity of cooperage during a portion of the season, compelled shipments to be made in bags. So much for the river. Below will be found a comparative statement of the manufacture of flour by our city mills for three years past :—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Nonantum	19,518	6,000	—
Atlantic	27,263	41,284	49,300
Phœnix	5,284	6,560	7,500
O'Fallon	12,356	16,943	18,700
Pacific	39,760	10,000	15,600
Magnolia	16,300	—	—
Eagle	31,700	28,564	30,750
Saxony	16,700	10,600	12,500
Empire	35,043	5,000	33,350
Star	14,833	38,000	19,800
Planters'	38,200	29,810	48,881
Chouteau	9,700	2,100	—
Park	32,000	33,323	38,695
Washington	13,500	15,000	—
Franklin	12,160	16,000	24,500
Union	23,909	33,000	39,500
Missouri	4,873	31,200	42,000
Cherry-st.	9,000	800	21,000
United States	46,000	59,000	55,000
Total	408,099	383,184	457,076

Receipts per wagons, as far as ascertained, aggregate 80,220 barrels, swelling the total brought to and manufactured in St. Louis for 1853, to 737,500. This, as before observed, is largely in advance of last year's operations—the amount nearly reaches the trade of 1848.

The range for the year just closed, (1853) compiled from our semi-weekly reviews, predicated on actual sales, is as follows :—

	City superfine.	Country superfine.	City extra.	Country extra.
January	$4 62½ to $4 80	$4 35 to $4 75	$5 00 to — —	$4 75 to $5 00
February	4 10 to 4 37½	4 00 to 4 25	— — to — —	4 75 to 5 00
March	3 80 to 4 00	3 55 to 4 00	4 75 to — —	4 20 to 4 75
April	3 80 to 4 00	3 75 to 3 90	4 75 to 5 00	4 25 to 4 50
May	3 85 to 4 25	3 75 to 4 15	4 75 to 5 00	4 37½ to 4 75
June	3 00 to 4 12½	3 75 to 4 10	4 50 to 5 25	4 25 to 4 50
July	4 25 to 5 00	4 00 to 4 70	4 75 to 5 25	4 50 to 5 00
August	4 50 to 5 25	4 25 to 5 60	5 60 to 5 75	4 50 to 5 12½
September	— — to — —	4 15 to 4 75	— — — —	4 75 to 5 25
October	5 50 to 6 00	5 00 to 5 80	6 00 to 6 50	5 50 to 6 12½
November	5 75 to 6 00	5 50 to 5 75	6 25 to 6 50	5 75 to 6 00
December	5 50 to 6 00	5 25 to 6 00	6 00 to 6 50	5 75 to 6 22

Wheat.—Good crops and a heavy demand have this year brought forward a much larger amount than last year's statistics show—the increase approaches half a million of bushels. Total amount of receipts per river foot up 1,007,467 sacks, and 17,267 barrels. Estimating a sack at 2, and a barrel at 3¾ bushels, the result is 2,072,491 bushels. Last year's receipts, 1,663,422—difference 409,069. The Illinois River sent out this season 435,375 sacks and 13,412 barrels, the Missouri 104,917 sacks and 529 barrels, the Mississippi 436,937 sacks and 2,139 bbls. Ohio River boats brought (from the Wabash, we presume, principally) 10,238 sks. and 1,187 bbls. In 1847 and 1848 receipts were 2,432,377 and 2,194,789 bushels respectively. Since then, until arrested this year, trade in this grain has shown a falling off. We give the statement, commencing with 1846 :—

1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
1,838,925	2,432,377	2,194,786	1,792,535	1,900,068	1,700,708	1,663,422	2,068,892

Corn.—Our table of receipts shows an increase this year over last of 114,472 sacks. The total amount is 459,192 sacks, against 344,720 for 1852. Of this, the Illinois River furnished 163,813, the Missouri 31,378, the Mississippi 264.001.

For the sake of convenience, we give in this connection the range of prices for three years past :—

	1851.	1852.	1853.		1851.	1852.	1853.
Jan...cents	44 to 48	38 to 41	35 to 45	July.. cts	38 to 43	35 to 48	36 to 58
February	41 to 46	30 to 42	32 to 39	August	35 to 40	40 to 45	39 to 61
March	35 to 40	32 to 37	31 to 37	September	33 to 38	40 to 45	39 to 50
April	35 to 40	33 to 36	30 to 42	October	35 to 40	40 to 45	38 to 54
May	34 to 38	30 to 43	35 to 44	November	31 to 36	43 to 50	37½ to 46
June	33 to 36	35 to 44	37½ to 48	December	35 to 40	41 to 43	34 to 41

Provisions and Lard.—Operations in this department of trade do not show so favorably for the year just closed as those in others already noticed. Farmers realized high prices for their hogs, but buyers generally sunk money on the products. The history of the season's transactions is a very plain one, and can be given in a few words.

A prevalent opinion was entertained at the opening, that the stock of hogs in the country did not exceed to any great extent the amount of the previous year, and that this excess would be counterbalanced by a deficiency in weight, supposed to exist, of some 10 to 15 per cent. The result showed an increase of 480,000 hogs, with a deduction of only 5 per cent. for light weight—equal to a difference, as compared with the crop of 1851–52, of 380,000 head. The number packed in the following different States, for the two past seasons, is thus given by the *Cincinnati Price Current*:—

	1851 '52.	1852-'53.		1851-'52.	1852-'53.
Ohio	547,373	603,152	Illinois	231,519	324,850
Indiana	447,352	590,945	Iowa	40,500	52,850
Kentucky	205,600	338,200	Missouri	69,436	87,200
Tennessee	10,000	36,500	Michigan	10,800	10,400
			Total	1,562,580	2,044,097

Hogs.—Prices, at the beginning, opened at $4 75 to $5, and by the first of December reached $6; and from this they gradually rose to $6 10, $6 25, $6 30 and $6 40, and the year (1852) closed with rates as high as $6 50. Mess pork, which had ruled high from June to October, (say $18 to $20 per bbl.) encountered a temporary check in the latter month, but rallied again to its highest price about the beginning of the packing season, and closed out briskly and firmly at this figure. This gave an impulse to the speculative feeling abroad, which was further stimulated by an unprecedented Eastern demand for green meats. Buyers from the Atlantic cities operated largely. They purchased the products at an advance on the price of hogs, and by this means the rates were buoyed up and sustained. It is hardly necessary to say that all these Eastern speculators were more or less injured by such operations, and many of them ruined. Several lots of meat purchased by them in this market, were subsequently resold here at a loss of 25 to 30 per cent. As soon as this demand subsided, a general panic pervaded the market, and prices toppled lower and lower, as the range given in our tabular statement will show. Several operators at this point, as well as elsewhere, made purchases at the early decline, for the purpose of grading the cost of their stock to a saving point; but they only became the more deeply involved in their struggle at extrication, and finally wound up with a net loss of about 33 per cent. The money lost, however, remained in the country—in the hands of the agriculturists.

The present season commenced under entirely different circumstances from those that marked the opening of the last. Operators had just emerged from disastrous transactions—the hog crop was believed to be large—old meats closed out at a decline, with a dull market, and money was difficult to obtain. To this time these considerations still have weight. Buyers have been unwilling, so far, to pay over $4 net, and but few lots have commanded higher rates. Sellers were, and are still in a great many instances, unwilling to submit to this price, and the number of hogs killed is not equal to that of last year at the same time. This effect is apparent in many other places. Business this season may equal that of last, (60,000 head,) but to go beyond this to any extent will require no little activity during the time yet remaining for operations.

For future reference, we give the amounts packed at the different prominent points in Illinois, Iowa, and Missouri:—

ILLINOIS.

	'51-52.	'52-53.		'51-52.	'52-53.
Shawneetown	4,000	16,000	Barry	3,400	3,500
Beardstown	24,400	37,700	Pittsfield	1,500	2,000
Knoxville	650	200	Perry	4,276	5,173
Quincy	17,500	15,000	Lacon	11,350	6,500
Lawrenceville	1,100	2,650	Henry	600	4,000
Naples	2,880	1,157	Peoria	17,000	38,000
Exeter	1,400	600	Rushville	2,600	2,750
Macomb	3,000	3,900	Frederick	1,200	1,500
Blandinsville	1,100	500	Springfield	10,000	22,000
Middletown	600	none.	Lagrange	1,930	2,500
Alton	25,000	27,000	Oquawka	6,500	5,300
Ottawa	1,355	1,344	Warsaw & Hamilton	3,500	7,000
Pekin	16,000	10,000	Monmouth	7,976	8,400
Graysville	2,990	5,456	Galena	5,000	6,000
Albion	3,000	2,200	Meredosia	5,257	2,000
Phillipstown	900	600	Peru	1,400	3,000
Canton	8,378	8,361	Fulton county	17,100	18,100
Rockport	2,678	2,965	Chicago	13,000	50,000
New-Canton	none	1,500			
			Total	231,569	324,856

IOWA.

	'51-52.	'52-53.		'52-53.	'51-52.
Dubuque	5,800	7,500	Iowa City	4,000	5,500
Muscatine	8,000	13,000	Fort Madison	500	4,500
Davenport	2,000	3,000	Burlington	11,000	6,000
Keokuk	10,000	14,000			
			Total	40,500	52,652

MISSOURI.

	'51-52.	'52-53.		'51-52.	'52-53.
St. Louis	47,000	60,000	Lagrange	3,500	2,500
Hannibal	7,876	11,500	Palmyra	3,000	3,200
Alexandria	5,000	7,000	Louisiana	2,000	3,000
Frankfort	80	none.			
			Total	69,436	87,200

Whisky.—A comparative statement of the receipts of 1852 and 1853, exhibits an increase in the transactions of the latter. The following is the monthly statement:—

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
January	666	2,858	February	4,702	4,401
March	6,631	5,908	April	4,814	5,835
May	4,647	4,916	June	3,472	3,255
July	3,943	3,764	August	2,501	4,188
September	1,835	2,756	October	5,064	3,519
November	4,390	4,706	December	2,903	2,668
			Total	45,568	49,774

Of the amount received for 1853, 20,335 barrels came from the Illinois River, 291 from the Missouri, 2,127 from the Ohio, and 27,021 from the Mississippi. In addition to these, 1,337 barrels were received by wagons. High freights crippled the trade somewhat, and occasional heavy receipts, on account of the difficulties of shipping, led to sudden fluctuations. On the whole, however, the article was active throughout, as increased transactions and enhanced rates sufficiently evidence.

The number of barrels manufactured by city distilleries (of which we believe there are only two) is given at 17,500—a large increase on the business of the preceding year.

Statement *of the Foreign Value of Goods, Wares and Merchandise Imported into this Port, and the Duties Collected in the year ending 31st December*, 1853, *viz.*:—

	Dutiable Value.	Duties Collected.
Amounts during the first quarter ending 31st March, 1853	$156,183 17	$46,862 79
Amounts during the second quarter ending 30th June, 1853	332,869 24	101,783 10
Amounts during the third quarter ending 30th September, 1853	170,330 50	57,493 45
Amounts during the 4th quarter ending 31st December, 1853	257,892 50	83,121 10
	$917,275 71	$289,260 44
Foreign value and the duties thereon remaining in public store on the 31st December, 1853	$14,107 70	$14,107 70
Entered for consumption—Constructively Warehoused, viz.:—		
Various goods, wares and merchandise	42,611 00	13,676 70
Sugar and Molasses (part to arrive)	269,144 00	80,740 20
Railroad Iron (do.)	193,843 00	59,861 50
	$519,705 70	$168,386 10
With reference to the first statement, the importations were as follows, viz.:—From England	487,750 88	134,965 67
From France	47,855 40	38,616 48
From Germany and Holland	79,500 48	23,670 14
From Spain and certain of her dependencies	96,248 00	29,053 90
From Matanzas and Manilla	78,985 00	23,695 50
From Pernambuco and Bahia	124,606 00	37,381 80
From various other places and ports	2,339 95	1,876 95
	$917,275 71	$289,260 44

Art. VII.—THE CORN TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES.*

WHEN Jacobs was deputized, thirty years since, to examine into and report upon the probable supply of wheat which England might obtain from the Continent, the result greatly surprised the statesmen and merchants of England. He showed that the surplus of all Europe was not more than 30,000,000 bushels, of which not more than one-fifth could be imported with advantage into England. Since that time a gradual relaxation of the corn laws, and a more steady demand, have combined to enhance the culture, and consequently the supply. What was formerly considered a very large import into England in a year of scarcity, is now a small import for a year of plenty, and the course of prices all over Europe is much higher than in those years. In illustration, we append the following table, which comes down to the reform of the English customs:—

	Imported into England.	Ave. price in Europe.		Price Wheat U. States.		Price Flour U. States.		Price Wheat in England.	
		s.	d.	$.	c.	$.	c.	s.	d.
1829........bushels	11,504,768	33	8	1	12	7	14	66	3
1830	13,338,304	34	10	1	15	4	84	64	4
1831	10,952,352	38	8	1	15	5	91	66	4
1832	1,510,160	32	9	1	15	5	26	58	8
Average bushels...	9,326,390	35	0	1	15	5	79	62	10
1833........bushels	10,560	26	10	1	13	5	25	52	11
1834	2,320	24	1	1	08	5	04	46	2
1835	960	22	9	1	19	5	72	39	4
1836	8,360	25	3	1	44	7	23	48	9
1837	1,686,176	25	9	1	83	10	19	55	10
Average bushels...	341,695	22	11	1	23	6	68	48	7
1838	14,550,624	38	2	1	54	7	96	64	4
1839	21,591,848	42	4	1	42	7	75	70	6
1840	16,291,096	40	4	1	10	5	44	66	4
1841	19,105,264	40	3	1	03	4	92	64	5
1842	22,202,512	39	2	1	16	6	03	57	5
Average bushels...	19,148,268	40	0½	1	25	6	42	64	7

ACCOUNT OF THE FOREIGN CORN, GRAIN, MEAL, AND FLOUR IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, IN THE YEARS 1839 TO 1853.

	Wheat. Qrs.	Barley and Bigg. Qrs.	Oats. Qrs.	In Corn or Maize. Qrs.	Flour. Cwt.	Wheat per Qr. s.	d.
1843	932,866	179,414	84,718	516	440,955	50	2
1844	1,097,963	1,025,416	308,126	39,218	987,774	51	3
1845	844,533	367,854	586,860	55,984	924,256	50	9
1846	1,437,336	371,137	794,863	694,184	3,363,810	54	9
1847	2,650,058	772,840	1,706,780	3,614,637	8,637,377	69	5
1848	2,477,366	977,203	930,265	1,577,023	1,731,970	50	6
1849	3,872,568	1,388,494	1,281,517	2,189,164	3,483,294	44	6
1850	3,754,592	1,043,051	1,165,876	1,286,263	3,855,058	40	4
1851	3,831,836	834,491	1,209,844	1,821,573	5,363,178	38	7
1852	3,068,892	626,737	995,479	1,479,890	3,921,634	41	0
1853	4,949,314	827,633	1,035,072	1,554,434	4,662,898	58	0

GRAIN EXPORTS FROM EGYPT IN 1853.

The exports of grain from Egypt were, for 1853:—

		Of which to G. B.			Total to G. B.
Wheat, qrs	706,000	405,000	Barley, qrs	62,000	50,000
Beans, qrs	215,000	169,000	Indian Corn	47,000	66,000

---

* From *United States Economist*, March, 1854. For the total agricultural productions of the United States in 1850, see vol. xii. DE BOW'S REVIEW.

GRAIN EXPORTS FROM ODESSA IN 1853.

Wheat, qrs	2,327,000	Rye, qrs	185,000
Indian Corn	250,000	Linseed, qrs	150,000

The four years ending with 1833 were years of scarcity in England. The prices were high, but it was the case, the sudden demand after years of cessation having been supplied out of accumulated stocks of old wheat in Europe; this did not affect farmers until stocks were exhausted. The high prices then stimulated production, when returning good harvests in England caused the demand to cease. It was those stocks on hand which mostly operated against the United States trade. The five years ending with 1837, during which the average in England was 48s. 7d., or twenty-five per cent. less than in the previous period of four years, show a cessation of imports into England, and prices on the Continent were thirty per cent. lower, while in the United States they were very high, under the influence of paper-money speculation. In 1837 the English harvests again failed, and since that time England has been a large buyer. The effect of her large purchases has been to keep prices on the Continent pretty high, causing a more steady growth of grain. As an indication of the present range of prices per quarter on the Continent, we give prices for December of three years:—

	Dantzic.	Hamburg.	Konigsb'g.	Marseilles.	Odessa.	Galatz.	Stettin.
1851....shillings	36 *a* 31	40 *a* 44	43 *a* 46	36 *a* 44	25 *a* 30	18 *a* 24	41 *a* 42
1852	49 *a* 51	41 *a* 46	42 *a* 51	36 *a* 46	23 *a* 32	24 *a* 27	45 *a* 49
1853	69 *a* 70	64 *a* 72	63 *a* 68	53 *a* 60	40 *a* 43	26 *a* 26	60 *a* 64

But it follows, in those years when Europe is short, that a larger demand falls upon the United States. That was the case in 1847, and again this year. The following table shows the import and export of grain into the United States for a number of years:—

TABLE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, OF WHEAT AND FLOUR, IN BUSHELS, TOGETHER WITH THE VALUE OF THE SAME, FROM 1831 TO 1853, INCLUSIVE.

	Exports.		*Imports.*		Flour in
YEARS.	Bushels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.	New-York.
1831	9,441,090	$10,461,715	633	$699	$5 50
1832	4,407,899	4,974,123	1,191	1,180	5 62
1833	4,811,061	5,642,662	1,697	1,716	5 75
1834	4,213,078	4,560 379	1,307	1,295	4 81
1835	3,914,742	4,446,182	311,805	268,623	6 12
1836	2,529,062	3,574,561	650,629	565,500	7 12
1837	1,610,898	3,014,415	4,000,000	4,276,976	9 50
1838	2,247,096	3,617,024	927,180	940,838	7 75
1839	4,712,086	7,069,361	41,725	57,747	6 87
1840	11,198,365	11,779,098	1,436	1,069	4 75
1841	8,447,670	8,582,527	652	900	5 00
1842	7,237,968	8,292,308	4,153	3,796	6 12
1843	4,519,055	4,027,182	12,121	8,542	5 12
1844	7,751,587	7,232,898	1,611	1,664	4 62
1845	6,365,866	5,735,372	351	287	4 50
1846	13,061,175	13,350,644	822	633	4 44
1847	26,312,431	32,183,161	20,354	22,878	9 50
1848	12,764,669	15,863,284	369,929	357,639	5 50
1849	12,309,972	13,287,629	104,110	96,659	5 25
1850	8,658,982	8,817,015	2,693,803	2,192,395	6 12
1851	13,948,499	13,303,332	2,357,492	1,618,610	4 12
1852	18,680,686	14,424,352	2,416,088	1,569,498	4 12½
1853	22,379,126	22,687,900	2,892,750	1,796,549	4 50

The imports in the last few years represent Canadian wheat. The general result of the table is a large and increasing export of wheat, but at lower prices than formerly, except in years of famine. This result is partly to be attributed to the improved means of communication, which have greatly reduced the transportation as an element of cost. The following table gives the price of flour in New-York in the first week of each of the first seven months of the last thirty-three years:—

PRICE OF GENESEE FLOUR IN NEW-YORK CITY FIRST WEEK IN EACH MONTH.

	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Average.
1823	$6 62½	$6 87½	$7 12½	$7 00	$7 12½	$7 00	$7 25½	$7 00
1824	6 25	6 00	6 12½	6 25	6 50	6 25	5 87½	6 19¼
1825	5 25	5 37½	5 25	5 25	5 12½	5 12½	5 25	5 21¼
1826	5 25	5 12½	5 25	4 87½	4 62½	4 37½	4 75	4 89
1827	5 12½	6 00	5 50	5 75	5 12½	4 75	4 50	5 25
1828	5 25	5 12½	5 60	4 75	4 62½	4 56¼	4 62½	4 85
1829	8 37½	8 50	8 12½	7 25	6 25	6 75	5 87½	7 14
1830	5 12½	4 75	4 62½	4 75	4 87½	4 87½	4 87½	4 84
1831	5 75	6 12½	6 75	6 87½	6 00	5 50	5 37½	5 91
1832	6 37½	6 50	5 62½	5 12½	5 37½	5 62½	5 75	5 26
1833	6 00	5 75	5 50	5 75	5 62½	5 75	5 87½	5 25
1834	5 50	5 37½	5 12½	4 87½	4 75	4 81¼	4 87½	5 04
1835	5 12½	5 25	5 50	5 62½	5 75	6 12½	6 62½	5 72
1836	7 25	7 50	7 37½	7 50	6 75	7 12½	7 12½	7 28
1837	10 12½	11 00	11 25	10 75	9 00	9 50	9 75	10 19
1838	8 75	8 25	8 00	8 25	7 50	7 75	7 25	7 96¼
1839	8 87½	8 93¾	9 00	8 50	7 75	6 87¾	6 31¼	7 75
1840	5 87½	6 37½	5 75	5 62½	5 12½	4 75	4 62½	5 44½
1841	4 93¾	4 87½	4 75	4 92¾	4 81¼	5 00	5 37½	4 92
1842	5 87½	6 43¾	6 12½	6 25	5 87½	6 12½	5 93¾	6 03
1843	4 56¼	4 37½	4 75	5 12½	5 00	5 12½	5 62½	4 93
1844	4 62½	4 81¼	4 93¾	4 90¾	4 62½	4 62½	4 31¼	4 69
1845	4 68¾	4 84¾	4 81¼	4 75	4 62½	4 50	4 62½	4 69
1846	4 66	4 56	4 75	4 62	4 62	4 34	4 12	4 84
1847	5 12	7 00	7 12½	7 62	7 25	9 50	6 37½	7 01
1848	6 87	6 25	6 12½	5 75	5 62	5 50	5 64	6 02
1849	6 00	5 87	6 00	5 50	5 50	5 25	4 93	5 56
1850	4 50	5 50	5 56	5 50	5 75	6 12	6 18¾	5 62½
1851	5 00	5 00	4 75	5 00	4 62	4 12	4 37½	6 68½
1852	4 56	4 62	4 52	4 31	4 12½	4 12½	4 09	4 37½
1853	5 56	5 50	5 00	4 56	4 68	4 50	4 68¾	4 94
1854	7 87½	8 75	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —	— —

The canals had not, in 1823, begun permanently to affect prices, nor had railroads come to their aid in supplying the city demands. When they began to affect the supply, speculation intervened, and in only three years prior to 1841 was the average below $5. In the four years ending with 1846, the average did not reach $5. If, now, we take a table of the arrivals of wheat at Buffalo from the lakes, and at Albany from the canals, with the value at Albany, we shall see how large a quantity, in years of small export, is required to send the price below $5.

TABLE SHOWING THE WHEAT AND FLOUR ARRIVING AT OSWEGO AND BUFFALO FROM THE WEST, AND THE QUANTITY ARRIVED AT TIDEWATER BY CANALS, WITH THE AVERAGE PRICE AT ALBANY PER BARREL.

	Wheat.			Flour.				
Years.	Oswego.	Buffalo.	Tidewater.	Oswego.	Buffalo.	T'water.	Total in bbls. at T'water.	Prs. at Albany.
1845	—	4,765,161	3,354,480	—	1,375,500	2,170,260	2,842,146	$5 57
1846	—	6,419,100	3,950,636	—	1,857,000	3,063,441	3,652,804	5 05
1847	—	4,520,117	4,143,830	—	1,249,000	3,952,957	4,780,338	6 84
1848	—	4,943,978	9,116,134	—	1,207,435	3,131,095	3,753,802	5 58
1849	3,615,677	3,608,261	2,734,389	317,753	1,096,187	3,263,187	3,739,759	5 00
1850	3,847,384	4,260,064	3,679,754	302,557	1,261,302	3,256,077	3,900,236	5 00
1851	4,231,899	5,549,778	3,166,686	389,929	1,299,513	3,358,466	3,991,201	4 00
1852	—	4,625,510	6,436,887	—	1,208,274	3,464,108	4,815,097	4 53
1853	—	5,167,314	9,436,887	—	962,885	3,060,899	4,968,299	4 77

This table does not give the full tidewater supply, because the Erie and the Central railroads now bring a portion. The New-York canals, however, with the Pennsylvania Canal and the Mississippi River at New-Orleans, are the most important outlets. The inspections at Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Richmond, are indications of relative quantities in those localities. The Boston receipts are mostly from the New-York canals, and those at Philadelphia from Canada.

The following table shows the general movement for some years at the most important points on the seaboard :—

MOVEMENT OF FLOUR ON THE SEABOARD OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Receipts at New-Orleans.	Pittsburg, Pa. Canal.	Per N. Y. Canals.	Received at Boston.	Received at Portland.	Inspections at Phila.	Inspections at Balt.	Inspections at Richm'd.
1841	494,194	109,678	1,629,644	574,223	—	—	626,974	162,909
1842	439,688	114,107	1,776,051	609,450	—	—	528,282	134,200
1843	521,175	130,856	2,239,177	610,964	—	—	560,431	167,700
1844	502,507	100,454	2,474,653	686,586	60,806	466,132	499,501	167,000
1845	533,312	82,092	2,842,146	730,138	74,447	583,436	576,745	182,500
1846	837,985	156,412	3,652,802	748,123	80,000	674,648	850,119	289,500
1847	1,667,975	297,940	4,780,338	1,020,497	81,700	708,961	959,456	159,500
1848	706,958	132,527	3,753,802	905,599	119,400	511,279	736,441	180,100
1849	1,013,177	139,203	3,739,759	1,007,964	153,812	633,533	764,519	271,000
1850	591,986	72,072	3,990,236	739,681	159,879	653,898	904,592	336,270
1851	941,106	200,538	3,991,201	690,520	160,702	678,566	912,498	314,100
1852	927,212	236,904	4,815,097	896,454	166,340	848,547	540,885	389,000
1853	806,672	—	4,968,255	935,967	186,877	933,528	638,446	—

If we scan this table in connection with the prices in New-York, we find that the receipts everywhere reponded to a rise. Thus the highest year was 1847, and every point shows a large increase in that year. It was, however, the case, that transportation was then very inadequate to the demand, and the deliveries in that year were the *maximum* capacity. In the present year the railroads have added largely to the means of the West to deliver. The following shows the deliveries of wheat and flour, in bushels of wheat, at four leading points of the West: St. Louis, on the Mississippi; Toledo, at the outlet of the Indiana Canal; Milwaukie, on the Lake; and Cleveland, at the mouth of the Ohio Canal :—

QUANTITY OF WHEAT AND FLOUR, IN BUSHELS OF WHEAT, RECEIVED AT CERTAIN POINTS.

	St. Louis, per River.	Toledo.	Milwaukie.	Cleveland.
1844	bushels 1,165,068	843,765	—	—
1845	1,667,435	—	—	—
1846	1,941,207	1,297,849	—	2,308,647
1847	4,076,217	1,545,820	—	5.480,376
1848	4,139,359	1,995.761	—	4,250,612
1849	3,326,155	1,426,963	—	2,741,250
1850	3,400,532	1,469,441	—	3,031,244
1851	3,257,052	2,234,551	639,799	5,758,349
1852	815,921	3,259,208	689,576	6,722,909
1853	3,076,032	2,929,361	1,977,190	—

In 1847 water-carriage had no competition; at present, the Cleveland and Cincinnati Railroad, the Sandusky Railroad, the Central Michigan and the Southern, deliver collectively as much wheat as the Ohio Canal at Cleveland.

The census of 1840 gave the wheat crop of the Union at 84,823,272 bushels for 1839. Of that quantity, 11,198,365 bushels, as above, were exported. Nevertheless, the price fell nearly twenty-five per cent. In 1850 the census gave the crop at 104,799,230. Of that quantity 8,658,982 was exported, and the price rose twenty per cent. Now we observe, from the above table of deliveries, that notwithstanding the whole population increased 6,000,000, the deliveries at the above points universally show a quantity at least double in 1851 what was produced in 1841. The aggregates were as follows:—

	Population.	Crops per census.	Bush. per head.	Prices in N. York.	Agg. deliveries on seaboard. Bushels.	Export. Bushels.
1840	17,069,453	84,823,272	5.0	$4 92	16,243,066	11,198,365
1850	23,257,723	104,799,230	4.5	5 62	33,560,515	8,658,982

If the crop of 1847 had been the average of those census figures, 95,000,000 bushels, out of which 26,312,431 were exported, there would have remained 68,700,000 bushels for consumption, or above three and a half bushels per head—a very small proportion. It is very evident, however, from the enhanced deliveries on a larger population, that the crop must have been very much larger than given by the census. The crop of the past year is supposed to have been much larger than for the previous one, and the pinch in the market about harvest time caused great numbers of hands to be discharged from railroads, whence we may infer that, if the grain was in the ground, it was largely harvested. The exports of wheat from the Union since August 1st have been, however, as follows:—

EXPORTS OF FLOUR FROM THE UNITED STATES, FROM AUGUST TO DATE.

	N. York.	Boston.	Baltim.	Philad.	Rich.	Chas'n.	N. O.	Total.
G. Britain and Ireland	727,140	23,236	237,137	262,526	5,224	3,100	81,396	1,339,749
France	509,469	14,118	4,936	—	—	3,331	136,123	667,901
Other ports of Europe	37,022	10,796	6,731	—	275	95	3,085	58,004
Australia	21,208	12,920	616	—	13,030	—	—	47,774
California	49,897	61,590	—	—	2,251	—	—	113,738
West Indies	48,666	12,134	24,320	50,296	—	1,169	2,287	138,872
British Colonies	79,421	42,469	—	1,240	2,112	—	—	125,242
Cuba	2,955	300	—	—	—	—	2,360	5,615
South America	55,811	4,237	75,220	27,978	40,866	—	19,656	224,763
Other places	1,234	422	125	30,803	—	—	1,372	33,956
Total bbls. Flour	1,532,859	182,232	349,085	372,839	64,768	7,685	246,179	2,755,633

This brings the export down to the second week in February. If to these we add the wheat exports, we shall have the whole quantity of wheat sent out of the country since August 1:—

EXPORTS OF WHEAT FROM THE UNITED STATES, FROM AUGUST 1 TO DATE.

From Aug. 1 to Feb. 18.	New-York.	Boston.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.	New-Orleans.	Total. Wheat.
England	3,382,052	—	483,146	265,289	7,896	4,138,383
Scotland	235,613	—	—	—	—	253,613
Ireland	141,704	—	—	—	—	141,704
Wales	49,392	—	—	—	—	49,392
France	1,102,432	6,939	—	4,706	108,629	1,222,706
North of Europe	493,745	—	—	11,513	—	505,258
British W. Indies	4,005	—	—	—	—	4,005
British N. A. Cols	4,093	—	—	5,791	—	9,884
Gibraltar	2,100	—	—	—	—	2,100
Other places	—	—	14,116	—	—	14,116
	5,415,136	6,939	497,262	287,299	116,525	6,316,172

The aggregate gives 20,104,357 bushels of wheat exported since July, that is to say, four-fifths as much as for the whole year 1847. It follows that unless the crop was very large, the quantity now in the country must be very small.

It is hardly to be expected that great exertions have been made to extend the wheat culture, since it has not been the most profitable crop. But if war is really to supervene in Europe, and the waste and devastation of armies fighting on the wheat grounds of Europe is to continue as long as many anticipate from a general war, then must of necessity the wheat crop become the most profitable and steady for the American farmer. It has only been, as seen above, through forty years of peaceful industry and rising prices for wheat, under the steady demand for England, that production has been developed to meet her wants. If war is again to destroy those sources of supply, then, indeed, will the dependence on America be great.

Art. VIII.—THE COMMERCE OF THE OHIO, AND ITS OBSTRUCTIONS.

REPORT.—(*Continued.*)

THE construction of dry-docks now going on at Kittery, in the State of Maine, at Pensacola, and at San Francisco, involving an expenditure of nearly five millions of dollars, which are to be used, when completed, in the occasional repair of a national vessel, were authorized without a murmur from the West; whilst at the same time the West was asking but a small appropriation of a few hundred thousand dollars, to relieve Western commerce from an unjust tax; and their memorials were treated with indifference, or, if reported by committees, were allowed to rest silently upon the tables of Congress, without further action. If anything could equal the astonishment created by the neglect of the Ohio River, it would be the extreme partiality of the Government for the seacoast and other waters. If the master of a fishing-smack or a wood schooner complains to Government that some obscure inlet or bay on the Atlantic coast would be benefited by a light-house, it is instantly granted, for his accommodation; or, if the coast service requires a railway dock, a breakwater, or any other improvement under the regulation of marine laws, there is no hesitation in making the improvement, under the clause of the Constitution which confers power on Congress to regulate commerce. The Western waters are also under the same marine laws, and by decisions of the Supreme Court, subject to all their exactions and penalties, free from the interruption of their navigation, by any power but the General Government. The Wheeling Bridge case defines the rights of the nation, and settles the principle of marine jurisdiction over the Ohio. But, whilst this is claimed by the nation, another clause of the Constitution is neglected, which prohibits Congress from giving a preference, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one State over those of another.

If the annual losses to the commerce of the country, occasioned by the obstruction at the Falls, could be correctly estimated, it would amount to the annual loss of more than a million of dollars; a sum equal to the interest on an investment of sixteen millions. This is the tax paid by the consumers and producers of Western products, for the delays and procrastination of the General Government, in removing an obstruction to the transit of a commerce more extensive, and more valuable, than any other in the known world.

In the safe and speedy navigation of the Ohio River the whole of the Union is interested. The commerce of every State and Territory must be affected, to some extent, by any obstruction to the flow of commerce through this great and leading artery of the commercial system, the pulsations of which are sensibly felt, not only at the centre, but in all the extremities.

It is therefore unwise and highly injurious to the general welfare to make this work a local question, or to connect it with any political considerations, which might, in any form, have a tendency to delay the action of Congress in promoting the public good.

The Ohio and Mississippi rivers have been, and still are, the great avenues for the westward march of our Empire. The country is indebted to the hardy pioneers of the West for the opening of this immense navigation, and for the first successful application of steam on the Western waters, which now present a fleet of steamers of eight or nine hundred vessels, with a tonnage larger than any other portion of the Old or New World.

Let us now look at the resources of this trade, which is yet in its infancy, just beginning to be developed, and brought into commercial activity. For this, it will be necessary to refer to the report of the Census of 1850, for the returns of a part of the products of those States, whose trade, commerce, and general welfare, are more or less affected by the obstructions in the Ohio River: Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, Wisconsin, Louisiana, Tennessee, Mississippi, Arkansas, part of New-York, part of Pennsylvania, and part of Virginia. The population of these States, and parts of States, may be put down at an estimate of at least ten millions of souls.

The cultivated land in these States, three years ago, amounted to forty millions of acres, with the following estimate of agricultural products in 1849:—

46,891,456 bushels of Wheat;
370,346,750 bushels of Indian Corn;
108,411,017 pounds of Tobacco;
366,844,800 pounds of Ginned Cotton;
22,285,545 pounds of Wool;
76,308 gallons of Wine;
102,227,471 pounds of Butter;
27,230,747 pounds of Cheese;
3,371,154 tons of Hay;
58,633 tons dew-rotted Hemp;
367,346 bushels of Flax Seed;
9,238,883 pounds of Maple Sugar;
262,764,000 pounds of Cane Sugar.

Other important products of the West are not included in this estimate, which would swell the value to a much greater extent.

The iron, coal, fruit, whisky, the product of hogs, cattle, sheep, and all manufactured articles, go to make up the commerce of this region. Enough, however, has been given to show the value of Western commerce, and if the value of lands and improvements represent the wealth of a country, then we may safely estimate the value of forty millions of acres of land, with improvements, at more than eleven hundred millions of dollars.

The Ohio and Mississippi rivers, which pass through the great valley, extending from the Rocky Mountains to the crest of the Alleghanies, furnish the great central stems for the various streams of commerce, flowing in from both sides, and extending from East to West, over nearly fifty degrees of latitude. The Ohio in its course, for nearly one thousand miles, passes over the richest fields of coal and iron mines known to the world. The Western bituminous coal field, extending from the Alleghany over the

Western portion of Pennsylvania, and the greater portion of Ohio and Kentucky, appearing also in Indiana, Wisconsin, and Iowa; add to this the advantage of the diversity of climate, and it will be found that the vast variety of soil, climate, and people, thus united, supplies almost every element of commerce. From the high latitudes, where snow almost never melts, to the region where it never falls, there is a continuous steamboat navigation—the inhabitant of the North exchanging his furs for the sugar and cotton of the South. These regions are united not only by water communication, but also spread over with a net-work of railways and canals, which tie and connect all their parts, with these central arteries, creating new demands for commerce, and furnishing additional inducements to remove its obstructions. And yet, with all this energy and private enterprise displayed on all sides, in the creation and promotion of Western commerce, the General Government cannot be prevailed upon to relinquish for a moment the miser's grasp upon the tolls of the Louisville Canal; enjoying, as a partner, the profits of a stock which cannot be forced into competition with private enterprise without the consent of Congress. The West might have some patience in submitting to the delay of Congress in removing this obstruction, if the expense were great, or if natural obstructions prevented the execution of the work. But the surveys of private companies, and those made by order of the Government, all agree that a canal of ample dimensions, for the accommodation of the commerce of the Ohio, can be constructed on the Indiana side of the river, at an expense of less than 1,500,000 dollars. The estimate of Mr. Purcell, a competent engineer, reported to a company in 1836, the cost of a canal on the Indiana side of the river, to be 1,400,000 dollars.

In 1844, Captain Cram made careful surveys of the Falls of the Ohio, by order of the Government, and reported the cost of a canal on the Indiana side at less than 1,500,000 dollars.

In 1850, W. J. Ball made a survey for a company chartered by the State of Indiana, and made the cost of a canal on the Indiana side at less than 700,000 dollars.

In 1852, Colonel Long, through the Topographical Bureau, reported the cost of a canal on the Indiana side, at 1,400,000 dollars; making the distance between the head of the canal and its termination in the big eddy, less than one mile in length.

Again, the same engineer made a survey, and reported at the last session of Congress several plans for the improvement of the Falls, and the enlargement of the Louisville Canal. In this report, a canal on the Indiana side of the river, with locks of 400 feet in length, and the canal 80 feet wide, was estimated to cost about 1,500,000 dollars.

Now, it is evident from these facts, that a canal of sufficient magnitude, to accommodate the present and future commerce of the Ohio, can be constructed on the Indiana side of the river for a sum not exceeding 1,500,000 dollars. When that work is completed and ready for the accommodation of the commerce, an additional sum of 300 or 400,000 dollars would enlarge the locks of the present canal, and thus afford accommodations for the passage of vessels on each side of the river.

To attempt to enlarge the present work, before another passage around the Falls is provided for the commerce of the river, would be attended with the most disastrous results to the trade of the Upper Ohio. Such a proceeding, by interrupting the navigation through the present canal, would be ruinous to commerce, until the work was completed, which, according to Captain Cram's report, might be four or five years, and under the most favorable auspices, not less than two years of interruption to the navigation around the Falls. It is therefore to be presumed that the Government will provide for another avenue, and thus afford an ascending and descending navigation around this obstruction.

The value of the commerce of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, annually floated on those streams, cannot be estimated at less than two hundred and fifty millions of dollars. It is the duty of the Government to protect this commerce, and to prevent its destruction on the great public highways, by obstacles which could be removed by small comparative expense.

The time has now arrived when the National Government can have no apology for longer delay in furnishing additional facilities for the passage of the commerce of the Ohio around the Falls. Surveys have been made favorable to the work; bills have been passed in both Houses of Congress, to the second reading; the labor of the country is ready to commence the undertaking; the National Treasury has a surplus of twenty-five millions of dollars unemployed; more than half this amount was placed there by the people of the Mississippi Valley, and they now justly demand a free navigation of the Ohio River, subject only to the penalties of marine jurisdiction, and thus placed on an equal footing with other portions of the Union. The West has a river coast more extensive than the Atlantic or the Pacific, and for the protection of their interior trade they have not demanded from the Government light-houses for their harbors, nor breakwaters, or dry-docks for their vessels; with one exception, not a dollar has ever been expended for such purposes, and yet the ports on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers have the same right to be rendered accessible and convenient, at the public expense, as any port on the Atlantic or Pacific coast.

The Government keeps a fleet of vessels for the protection of our ocean commerce, at an expense of ten millions of dollars annually.

Private enterprise, connected with the Atlantic commerce, has been fostered and supported by the General Government. The owners of the Collins' line of steamers received assistance and aid from the nation, to enable their vessels to compete with the British lines.

The expedition, fitted out at great expense, to open a new trade with the Japanese, is a national expenditure, authorized, by receiving the votes of Western members for the appropriations. To these national objects, where the general good of the country can be promoted, or its honor sustained, there is no murmuring from the West. From every portion of this great Valley of the Mississippi, embracing a territorial area of more than 1,200,000 square miles, there is a cheerful acquiescence in all the national measures which go to benefit any portion of the Union. Do the citizens of the West, then, ask too much, when they claim that the commerce of the Ohio River shall be relieved from an unjust tax, exacted by the Government, and this great centre of commercial activity, freed from the delays, losses, and interruptions caused by an inefficient avenue around the Falls of the Ohio?

There are other considerations which should induce the Government to make this improvement at the present time.

The nation is now making the preliminary surveys of several lines of railways, to connect the Atlantic with the Pacific Ocean, and when these communications are completed, to present a speedy, safe, and cheap transit over our Continent, for the products of the great Eastern World, intended for the supply of the European nations.

Now, it is evident, that any railroad constructed to the Pacific coast, must have a connection with the Mississippi River, and if at Memphis, St. Louis, or any other point, the Ohio River must become an important avenue for that Eastern freight, on its way to the Atlantic coast.

If the great commerce of the Eastern world is desirable, and if this nation is to have the carrying trade of it across our Continent, then we must commence early to improve the avenues which that trade is to occupy, and be ready to receive it when it is offered.

When the teas and silks of China, with the anticipated products of the Island of Japan, are hourly deposited on the banks of the Mississippi, by railroad, there to be distributed to all points of the Union, will the General Government maintain the position of a toll-gatherer, at the gates of an inefficient canal, through which a great portion of this commerce is to pass, and thus interdict and embarrass a trade which has been the prize contended for, the last fiteen centuries, by all the nations of Europe? It is the commerce of the East which is now agitating the peace of the world, and marshalling the great powers of Europe on the battle-field, to decide the supremacy in obtaining possession of it. In this struggle the United States may be involved, and in the event of a war which should induce an enemy to blockade the mouth of the Mississippi River, and crowd our interior channels with the immense products of the South, which now find their way to the Gulf of Mexico, how important would it then be, to pass the sugar and cotton of the South over the Falls of the Ohio, without the delay of weeks and months waiting for vessels to pass an insignificant avenue, rendered useless for the ordinary trade by its contracted dimensions and inefficient management.

AMOUNTS APPROPRIATED IN EACH YEAR.

1806		$48,400
Mr. Madison's Administration.		
1810	$60,000	
1811	50,000	
1812	30,000	
1815	100,000	
1816	10,000	
1817	4,000	
		254,000
Mr. Monroe's Administration.		
1818	$317,989	
1823	32,920	
1824	175,000	
1825	176,712	
		702,621
Mr. Adams's Administration.		
1826	$294,253	
1827	388,541	
1828	*1,020,120	
1829	608,560	
		2,311,474
Gen. Jackson's Administration.		
1830	$672,506	
1831	926,311	
1832	1,225,008	
1833	1,159,451	
1834	1,641,621	
1835	1,352,243	
1836	1,837,520	
1837	1,768,218	
		10,582,878
Mr. Van Buren's Administration.		
1838†	$2,087,044	
1839	60,500	
1841	75,000	
		2,222,544
Mr. Tyler's Administration.		
1842	$100,000	
1843	230,000	
1844	696,500	
1845	50,000	
		1,076,500
Total		$17,198,417‡

RECAPITULATION.

Maine	$270,574
New-Hampshire	10,000
Massachusetts	526,148
Vermont	101,000
Rhode Island	32,000
Connecticut	160,407
New-York	1,632,115
New-Jersey	28,963
Pennsylvania	207,981
Pennsylvania and Delaware	38,413
Delaware	2,038,256
Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Virginia	1,901,227
Maryland	55,600
Virginia	25,000
North Carolina	370,000
Georgia	243,043
Florida	267,712
Alabama	204,997
Mississippi	46,500
Louisiana	717,200
Tennessee	11,920
Kentucky and Tennessee	155,000
Arkansas	486,065
Missouri and Arkansas	100,000
Missouri	75,000
States through which the Western rivers pass, (Ohio, Mississippi, Missouri and Arkansas)	1,596,000
Indiana	1,270,733
Illinois	998,601
Ohio	2,617,661
Michigan	645,724
Wisconsin Territory	167,500
Iowa Territory	75,000
Total	$17,198,417‡

---

* The million of this sum was for the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal.

† The appropriation law of 1838 directed that but, a portion (not exceeding one-half) of amounts appropriated should be expended in that year.

‡ Fractions of dollars are omitted in these sums.

Art. IX.—STATISTICS OF COMMERCE, POPULATION, ETC.

CANADA—SHIPWRECKS—EUROPEAN STATISTICS—AMERICAN INDEBTEDNESS—SHIP-BUILDING, MINING, ETC.

SOME months ago we published a few remarks upon the *progress of Canada*, in which a notable typographical error occurred, pointed out in one of the Northern papers. As the mistake was evident to every one, we did not think it worth while to correct it at the time. The population of the two Provinces amounts to 1,842,210; that of cities and towns to 181,031; of counties and villages, 1,671,231.

If the statements here made are correct, the ratio of increase of population in the Provinces for the past five years has been vastly greater than in the United States. The increase of population in the United States for 50 years, from 1800 to 1850, was not quite 400 per cent., while in Upper Canada, it was upwards of 1,100 per cent. for 40 years, from 1811 to 1851. From our census it appears that the three States of Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois, contained in 1830, 1,126,851. In 1850 they contained 8,505,000, a little over 320 per cent. in 20 years. Canada West, in 1830, contained 210,473; in 1849 it contained 791,000, which is an increase of over 375 per cent. for the same period of 20 years—so that the increase in these three choice States was 55 per cent. less than that of Canada West during the same time. The Gore and Wellington districts have increased 1,900 per cent. in 33 years up to 1850; the Western district has increased over 1,700 per cent.; the London district 55 per cent.; the county of Niagara about 380; while the county of Oxford has doubled its population in 89 years.

The increase in the extreme West of Canada has been still more striking. The counties of Huron, Perth, and Bruce, have increased from 5,600 in 1841, to 37,000 in 1851, being upwards of 571 per cent. in 10 years, an increase almost beyond comprehension. It appears from Smith's work on Canada, that the Huron district has made more rapid progress since its first settlement in 1827, than the States of Ohio, Michigan, and Illinois, did in double that time, or than Lower Canada did in 104 years.

The increase of population in Boston, between 1840 and 1850, was 45 per cent.; in Toronto for the same period, 95 per cent. The increase in population of New-York as compared with Toronto, is 2½ times in the 20 years from 1830 to 1850, against 6 times in 18 years between 1832 and 1850, 16 times in 60 years, against 75 times in 49 years—66 per cent. between 1840 and 1850, against 95 per cent.

St. Louis, which in 1850 had 70,000 inhabitants, had increased it 15 times that in 1820. Toronto in 1850 had increased 18 times that in 1817. The population in Cincinnati was in 1850, 115,590, or 12 times its amount in 1820, 30 years before; and Toronto had in 1850, 18 times its population in 1817, or 33 years before. Hamilton had in 1830 a population of 2,846; by the last census, 14,112.

MARINE DISASTERS IN 1853.

G. W. Rounds, agent of the N. W. Insurance Company, at Buffalo, has compiled his annual list of marine disasters and loss of life on the Lakes for the season of 1853. The following is a recapitulation of the list:—

Total loss of property for 1853	$874,123
" life "	81
Amount of loss by American vessels	635,223
" " British "	238,020

Amount of loss by Steam vessels	$463,600	
" " Sail "	412,343	
" " Collision "	55,828	
" " Explosion "	78,394	
" " Fire "	131,050	
" " Other cause "	608,871	
Amount of loss on Lake Ontario:—		
" " Steam "	188,400	
" " Sail "	94,077	282,477
" " Erie steam "	128,606	
" " Erie sail "	121,606	250,512
" " Huron st'r "	88,594	
" " Huron sail "	62,744	151,388
" " Superior st'r "		32,500

Of the two hundred and sixty-six disasters here detailed, nineteen occurred in April, thirty in May, seventeen in June, eleven in July, twenty-eight in August, thirty in September, thirty-nine in October, eighty in November, and twelve in December.

Six steamers, two propellers, and thirty sail vessels have gone out of existence entirely.

The number of accidents exceeds those of last year by thirty-seven, while the loss of property is less by $118,516. The decrease in loss of life and property by collision and explosion shows a very gratifying result of the fiscal year's operations of the new law relating to vessels propelled by steam, and the improved system of lights. With but one exception, (that of the Ocean Wave, on Ontario,) no lives have been lost on any of the regular passage steamers by any accident whatever.

The loss by collision in 1822 was $261,950, and loss of life 296; while that of '53 is—of life, 81, and of property by collision, only $55,828.

The following tables are made up for the *European States*, showing the amount of *revenue* collected from each person and family, *debt*, *army*, *population*, etc.:—

COUNTRIES.	Revenue.	Proportion raised per head.			Proportion paid by each family.		
Great Britain	£50,000,000	£1	16*s.*	4*d.*	£8	1*s.*	8*d.*
France	67,000,000	1	17	6	9	8	6
Austria	$100,000,000	0	8	4	2	1	8
Prussia	60,000,000	0	10	7	2	12	11
Russia	110,000,000	0	4	8	1	3	4
Holland	40,000,000	1	14	3	7	11	3
Belgium	31,000,000	0	18	7	4	12	11
Spain	80,000,000	0	18	5	4	12	1
Portugal	18,000,000	0	15	5	3	17	1
Denmark	12,500,000	0	13	7	3	7	11
Sweden	10,500,000	0	6	8	1	13	4
Papal States	15,000,000	0	14	1	3	10	5
Naples	31,000,000	0	10	11	2	12	7
Tuscany	18,000,000	1	11	9	7	18	9
Sardinia	22,000,000	0	15	6	3	17	6
Turkey	17,000,000	0	4	1	1	00	5
Switzerland	400,000	0	00	5¾	0	2	4¾
San Marino	8,820	0	3	4	0	16	8

TONNAGE ENTERED.

	United States.			*Great Britain.*		
	United States.	Foreign.	Total.	Great Britain.	Foreign.	Total.
1800	682,871	123,882	806,753	922,594	780,155	1,702,749
1807	1,089,876	47,672	1,237,548	907,764	680,144	1,487,407
1814	59,626	48,302	107,928	1,290,248	599,287	1,889,535
1820	801,252	79,204	480,457	1,668,060	477,611	2,115,671
1830	870,299	134,419	1,004,718	2,180,042	758,828	2,938,070
1840	1,576,946	712,363	2,209,309	2,807,367	1,298,840	4,106,207
1850	2,573,016	1,775,623	4,348,839	4,078,544	2,035,152	6,113,696
1852	3,235,522	2,057,358	5,292,880	4,267,815	2,462,354	6,730,169

STATE OR NATION.	Debt in Prussian dollars.	Men in army.	Vessels in fleet.	Guns.	Population.
Great Britain and Ireland	5,000,000,000	129,000	678	18,000	27,500,000
Spain	1,300,000,000	160,000	50	721	13,000,000
Austria	1,100,000,000	500,000	a156	600	36,000,000
Russia	733,000,000	700,000	b615	7,000	70,000,000
Holland	731,000,000	50,000	125	2,500	3,500,000
Prussia	180,000,000	c121,000	47	114	17,000,000
France	1,330,000,000	265,462	328	8,000	36,000,000
Belgium	165,000,000	90,000	5	36	5,000,000
Portugal	160,000,000	38,000	36	700	3,500,000
Papal States	120,000,000	19,000	5	24	3,200,000
Sardinia	120,000,000	38,000	60	900	4,250,000
Naples	100,000,000	48,000	15	484	8,500,000
Bavaria	92,000,000	57,000	—	—	5,000,000
Denmark	80,000 000	20,000	33	1,120	2,750,000
Saxony	43,500,000	25,000	—	—	2,000,000
Turkey	40,000,000	220,000	66	800	12,500,000
Hamburgh	34,000,000	1,800	—	—	170,000
Baden	33,000,000	18,000	—	—	1,500,000
Hanover	30,368,000	21,000	—	—	2,000,000
Wurtemburg	26,000,000	19,000	—	—	2,000,000
Greece	25,000,000	8,900	34	131	1,000,000
Mecklenburg	10,000,000	4,700	—	—	540,000
Tuscany	16,000,000	10,000	10	15	1,700,000
Frankfort	7,000,000	1,300	—	—	65,000
Brunswick	6,800,000	3,000	—	—	300,000
Duchy of Hesse	6,200,000	42,000	—	—	900,000
Electoral Hesse	6,000,000	11,000	—	—	800,000
Lubeck	6,000,000	490	—	—	50,000
Saxe Weimar	4,000,000	2,000	—	—	75,000
Schleswick, &c.	4,000,000	—	—	—	650,000
Anhalt	3,500,000	700	—	—	d150,000
Bremen	3,000,000	500	—	—	80,000
Saxe Cobourg	2,566,000	1,200	—	—	160,000
Saxe Meiningen	2,500,000	2,400	—	—	260,000
Nassau	2,000,000	3,500	—	—	425,000
Parma	1,800,000	5,000	—	—	500,000
Anhalt	1,500,000	300	—	—	50,000
Saxe Altenburg	1,500,000	1,000	—	—	150,000
Norway	1,500,000	23,000	160	560	1,200,000
Oldenburg	1,200,000	600	—	—	80,000
Hesse Homburg	860,000	350	—	—	25,000
Schwarzburg	250,000	540	—	—	60,000
Sweden	—	34,000	340	2,400	3,500,000
Modena	—	3,500	—	—	525,000
Lippe Detmold	—	820	—	—	110,000
Reuss	—	750	—	—	130,000
Waldeck	—	520	—	—	60,000
Switzerland	—	69,500	—	—	2,500,000
San Marino	—	—	—	—	8,000

a, including gun-boats; b, 175 vessels, 440 gun-boats; c, war-footing 492,000; d, includes the three divisions of Anhalt.

The totals of the preceding columns sum up thus:—

Debt	$11,567,044,000	Guns	44,105
Men in army	2,773,883	Population	271,403,000
Vessels in fleet	2,763		

In addition to these, the Danubian Principalities, with a population of 1,750,000, maintain an army of 6,800 men, and pay an annual tribute of 3,000,000 piastres to Turkey. Servia, with a population of 1,000,000, maintains an army of 3,000, and pays an annual tribute of 2,000,000 piastres to Turkey. The debts of the various nations are expressed in Prussian dollars, whose current value is 3s. English.

The Secretary of the Treasury has transmitted to Congress a statement of the amount of indebtedness of federal, state, city, county, rail-road, canal, and corporation stocks, or other evidences of debt held in Europe on the 30th June, 1853. He gives the amount of State bonds outstanding at the period above named, and amount held by foreigners, as far as the same can be ascertained, viz.: $190,718,221, of which amount $72,931,507 are held by foreigners:—

STATES.	Bonds outstanding.	Held by foreigners.	STATES.	Bonds outstanding.	Held by foreigners.
Maine	$471,500	None.	Alabama	$4,497,000	$4,397,666
N. Hampshire	74,899	do.	Louisiana	9,589.207	8,000,000
Vermont	None.	do.	Arkansas	2,488,839	No return.
Massachusetts	6,445,000	$4,000,000	Mississippi	7,271,907	do.
Rhode Island	None.	None.	Tennessee	3,363,856	do.
Connecticut	do.	do.	Kentucky	5,571,297	do.
New-York	24,323,838	6,758,700	Missouri	802,000	40,000
New-Jersey	None.	None.	Illinois	17.000,000	Not known.
Pennsylvania	40,021,445	26,584,671	Indiana	7,712,850	2,570,000
Delaware	None.	None.	Ohio	15,542,549	7,750,000
Maryland	15,356,524	8,537,917	Michigan	2,389,550	Not known.
Virginia	12,089,382	3,075,909	Wisconsin	100,000	None.
N. Carolina	2,224,000	None.	Iowa	88,000	do.
S. Carolina	1,925,892	937,777	Texas	5,341,628	195.907
Georgia	2,802,472	72,000	California	2,997,488	Not known.
Florida	None.	None.			

The cashier of the Bank of America, in reply to a letter of inquiry, gives the amount of bonds of the State of Kentucky held by foreigners as $1,200,000.

Winslow, Lanier & Co., of New-York, state, in reply to a letter of inquiry, that "it will be very difficult for us to say where the State securities are held, whether in Europe or this country, yet we can near it sufficiently so, perhaps, for your purposes: 1. As to the debt of Georgia, fully three-fourths of it is held in Europe. 2. Tennessee, over one-half held in Europe. 3. Michigan, more than two-thirds held in Europe, chiefly in Holland. 4. North Carolina, mostly held in Europe, or at least over one-half. 5. Alabama, more than two-thirds held abroad. 6. Kentucky, about one-half held abroad. 7. Mississippi, all held abroad, mostly in Holland. 8. Illinois, three-fourths held abroad. 9. Ohio, two-thirds held abroad. 10. Indiana, fully three-fourths held abroad. 11. California, mostly held in this country.

If these returns be substituted for those given in this table, the total of State bonds held by foreigners residing beyond the limits of the United States will be about one hundred and eleven millions, without counting the territorial bonds of Florida, amounting to several millions, or the arrears of interest of Florida, Arkansas, Texas, and Mississippi.

WRECKS AT SEA IN 1853.

The *New-York Times* publishes a list of the vessels and lives lost at sea during the last year, as follows:—

DATE.	VESSEL.	NO. LOST.
Jan. 6,	Schooner James C. Fisher	2
Jan. —,	Bark Louisa Emilia	40
Jan. —,	Brig Lily	32
Feb. 16,	Steamship Independence	129
Feb. —,	Brig Vintage	10
Feb. 24,	Schooner Mary E. Balch	2
Feb. —,	Ship Queen Victoria	55
March 4,	Schooner Splendid	2
March 4,	Schooner Narcissa	2
March 10,	Brig Sea Bird	3
April 1,	Iron steamer Duke of Sutherland	6
April 29,	Steamer Ocean Wave	28
May 15,	Steamship Monumental City	32
June 17,	Ship Nesree	340
July 20,	Ship Lady Evelyn	264
July 28,	Ship Charles Clark	5
Aug. 23,	Bark Meridian	4
Sept. 25,	Dutch steamer in Zuyder Zee	102
Sept. 25,	Iron Ship Camerton	30

Sept. 28,	Schooner Pledge	5
Sept. 29,	Ship Annie Jane	300
Oct. 23,	Steamtug Ajax	5
Oct. 23,	Schooner S. P Burnham	5
Oct. —,	Ship Liverpool	16
Nov. 28,	Screw Steamship Marshall	150
Dec. 4,	Schooner Henry Clay	1
Dec. 8,	Revenue Cutter Hamilton	7
Dec. 24,	Steamship San Francisco	150
Dec. 29,	Clipper Ship Staffordshire	140
Dec. 29,	Schooner Moselle	4
Dec. 29,	Schooner Powell	3
Dec. 31,	Steamer Pearl	18
Dec. —,	Brig Hyperion	8
	Total lives lost (33 vessels)	1,899
	Add estimate for coasting vessels, &c	25
	Aggregate mortality	1,924

NUMBER OF VESSELS.

Number of sea vessels lost during the year	110
Fishing smacks destroyed in gales	20
Total number of vessels destroyed	130

The San Francisco owed her wreck chiefly to the inefficiency of her engines. The Staffordshire struck a rock at night. The Pacific steamships S. S. Lewis, Independence and Tennessee, grounded and went to pieces—the Independence first running aground, and then burning to the water's edge.

The *St. Louis Republican*, in a paper upon the *silver and gold mines* of the Gila, and the *copper mines* of New-Mexico, says:—

> Yesterday we had the opportunity of examining some specimens of gold brought in by Major Steen, of the United States dragoons, from the vicinity of the Copper Mines in New-Mexico, in the neighborhood of Fort Webster, where he has been stationed. The specimen is from surface washing, but sufficient to show that the precious metal exists there, and subsequent washings will doubtless prove its existence in larger quantities.
>
> Major Steen has also a sample of the gold found on the river San Pedro, which empties into the Gila River, from the south, in the Mexican province of Sonora, near where the boundary line between the United States and Mexico, as projected by Mr. Bartlett, strikes the Gila. The San Pedro is the only stream entering the Gila from the south. Beyond the mountains are the ranches of San Bernardino and Santa Cruz, and on the other side of the San Pedro is Taos-Leon, places mentioned by Col. Cook in his expedition to California. It is from this mine that gold bullets used by the Indians are procured. Mr. Aubrey alludes to them, and Dr. Abadie, of the United States army, sent some of them to Major Walker of this city.
>
> The major has also specimens of silver from the mines of Saint Andrews, which are supposed to be the richest that have yet been discovered. The specimens were obtained by melting the ore in an iron ladle in a common fire. The mines are in a northeast direction from Dona Ana, and about eighty miles from El Paso. The major says that the silver ore is smelted with as much ease and facility as the common galena.
>
> He represents the whole country as abounding in mines of copper, iron, and lead, and only requiring the aid of capital and enterprise to make it the most productive section of the continent. Formerly the Indians concealed from the Mexicans and American traders the locality of their mines.

Major Steen, during his residence there, was fortunate enough to gain their confidence so far as to be shown the locality of several of their mines, and there he found the remains of the workings of the Jesuits many years ago.

In this connection the Major mentions another fact illustrative of the abundance of gold in that region. An Indian applied to him for clothing. The Major promised to furnish what he wanted if he would bring him gold from the Gila. The Indian replied that if he had known it he could have brought him "handfuls" from the late feast of the Gilenos, for it was plenty there. He went away, and in a few days returned with a pound or more. The Major being absent, the Indian sold it to an interpreter. Of him the Major obtained his sample. It is in large lumps or grains, and unlike the washings obtained in California. There can be no question that there is a mineral tract of country on the Gila that will soon attract a large population.

The following table of FREIGHTS and of SHIP-BUILDING in the United States was prepared by Thomas P. Kettell, of New-York:—

FREIGHT—HIGHEST, LOWEST, AND AVERAGE FOR FLOUR AND GRAIN TO LIVERPOOL FOR THE LAST SEVEN YEARS, AT THE PORT OF NEW-YORK.

	Flour per barrel.						*Wheat per bushel.*					
	Highest.		Lowest.		Average.		Highest.		Lowest.		Average.	
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
1846	5	0	1	9	2	8	1	3	0	7	0	9¼
1847	8	9	1	6	3	9	2	4	0	5	1	1
1848	2	6	1	0	1	8	0	8	0	4	0	6
1849	2	3	1	3	1	7½	0	7	0	3	0	5¼
1850	1	9	0	9	1	3½	0	6	0	3	0	4
1851	1	9	0	8	1	1¼	0	5	0	3	0	4¼
1852	3	6	0	9	1	4½	0	6	0	3	0	4¼
1853	4	0	1	7	2	9	1	3	0	5	0	10

VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES.

	Class of Vessels.									
	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sl'ps & Canal boats.	Steam'rs.	Total No. built.	1853. Total tonnage. Tons.	1852. Total tonnage. Tons.	1851. Total tonnage. Tons.	1850. Total tonnage. Tons.
Maine	132	70	133	10	7	350	118,916	110,047	77,898	91,211
N. Hamps'e	9	—	1	—	—	10	6,666	9,515	8,158	6,914
Vermont	—	—	2	—	—	3	218	—	561	77
Mass	73	1	126	3	2	205	83,015	48,001	41,323	35,836
R. Island	6	—	5	—	—	11	3,170	3,204	3,056	3,587
Connecticut	4	—	37	21	5	67	9,022	9,034	3,414	4,819
New-York	21	6	85	103	74	289	83,224	72,072	76,806	56,342
New-Jersey	—	—	30	22	6	58	7,107	3,953	5,869	6,201
Penn	1	4	28	102	56	191	31,539	31,220	28,623	21,409
Delaware	—	1	11	19	2	33	4,435	2,923	2,058	1,848
Maryland	15	9	97	—	1	122	16,901	18,158	18,027	15,964
Dis. of Col.	—	—	—	42	—	—	2,743	1,995	4,439	288
Virginia	3	1	11	14	11	40	6,599	3,799	1,778	3,584
N. Carolina	—	1	16	8	2	22	1,746	2,228	1,724	2,651
S. Carolina	—	—	24	13	1	38	1,993	939	625	683
Georgia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	322	2,369	1,592
Louisiana	—	—	9	4	4	17	1,346	1,284	2,327	—
Tennessee	—	—	—	—	1	1	45	479	225	6,460
Kentucky	—	—	—	1	29	30	8,592	7,312	8,861	1,353
Missouri	—	—	1	10	11	22	3,583	2,133	2,066	1,691
Illinois	—	—	7	2	—	9	1,158	1,217	318	—
Wisconsin	1	1	10	2	—	14	2,422	558	76	5,214
Ohio	4	—	28	23	35	90	21,213	18,329	6,035	2,061
Michigan	—	1	20	—	14	35	4,304	2,639	1,365	122
California	—	—	—	—	2	2	150	—	69	—
Indiana	—	—	—	—	9	9	3,455	—	354	105
Texas	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	275	113
Alabama	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	93	—	79
Florida	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	30	—	—
Total	269	95	681	394	272	1,711	425,572	351,493	298,283	272,218

Art. I.—PROMOTION OF AGRICULTURE BY THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

AN AGRICULTURAL BUREAU.

THE National Agricultural Society, which met lately in Washington, supported by a large vote the establishment of another regular Department of the government, like that of the Navy or the Interior, to be called the "Department of Agriculture." The proposition we regarded unwise. The remarks which follow upon a "Bureau of Agriculture" are made by Mr. Newton, of Ohio.

From 1796 to the present time, the subject of an Agricultural Board, or Bureau, has been an object of Executive consideration and recommendation to the National Legislature; and yet little, formally, and nothing effectively, has been done. While all our other interests and relations have been sedulously guarded and liberally patronized, agriculture, the foundation on which all others rest, and the source from which all others flow, and the fountain from which all others are sustained and increased, has been left to struggle alone, and not acknowledged in the great family of national relationship.

From that period to the present, we have increased in numbers with greater rapidity than any other nation or people—advancing from less than four millions to nearly twenty-five millions—possessing a territory extending from ocean to ocean and from a tropical sun to near the polar region, embracing all the various climates, soils, minerals and vegetable productions of the whole earth, Inhabited by a people from all nations, and of all kindreds and castes, with intelligence and enterprise more generally disseminated than any other people on earth; yet, lamentable as it is, in national agricultural science, patronage, and attention, we are behind any other enlightened nation under Heaven.

Our soil is more generally adapted to agriculture, and more of our people engage in that pursuit, than in any other country. It was the first—it is the chief and general employment of our inhabitants, and more than eighteen millions are engaged in its occupation. The freedom and facility to acquire the ownership of the soil, is that which gives us a prominence over any other people. There is a prominence in the absolute ownership of the soil, and its general occupation by our citizens, that gives us a more general and important national character than any other nation.

If America is guided by wisdom and patriotism, forty years hence she will probably contain more absolute freeholders than all the world besides. Improvement of our national agriculture is the strongest bond of union with which the nation can encircle its territory. Its neglect is but too legible in this aspect. While other countries are under the necessity of furnishing scenes of amusement, with which to employ their inhabitants, we employ ourselves in cultivating the soil.

Nature is a good agriculturist; she has guided her citizens, and not this nation her subjects. She fits the soil, originally, with all the properties necessary for the growth of all the plants. And from the large quantities of virgin soil in almost all parts of our extended country, that have been from our earliest history, and still are being brought into actual occupation and improvement, our agricultural products have been so large, that the public mind has been lulled into apathy and indifference as to the necessity or means of renovating old and dilapidated soils, or of increasing the aggregate amount of our products.

This morbid national feeling is having a deleterious influence upon us nationally and individually. As a consequence, land in America is not worth half what it should be, and otherwise would be, if the standard of agriculture was elevated. Americans do not become farmers from choice, but from necessity, and for want of other adequate employments. Sons of wealthy and influential men loathe the farm as they would a prison. It is the drudge of youth, and the servant of old age, after ambition has been cloyed and satisfied. According to the prevailing fashion and popular feeling, the farm furnishes few inducements for the youthful aspirant for national honors and preferment.

While every other profession and calling, from the highest to the most inconsiderable doorkeeper in the land, is sought after and hunted up, with an avidity that is truly surprising — professions, trading, offices, and agencies, are among the most fashionable employments of the age; yet how few, compared with the number of those engaged in those pursuits, ever arrive at any eminence or competency for themselves or families!

The tenure by which most of these are held and enjoyed is so transient and fugitive, that no permanent preparation can be made for home and its enjoyments. The employment of the families of those engaged in these temporary pursuits are so ephemeral, that they are unfitted for the substantial business of life—and more especially for those adverse circumstances that so frequently occur.

If the nation wish to people her farms with skilful and scientific farmers, elevate her standard; give her a name and a place, and an independent position among our national palaces, where the Father of our Country strove with his own hands to place her, and where he most earnestly recommended the nation to place her, and not turn her off with the crumbs that fall from another's table.

Methinks I see him yonder, over the way, with the manuscript of his plan in hand, and the wisdom of his countenance guiding our deliberations in perfecting his most favored object.

Remember, I beseech you, this great and practical truth, that whatever emanates from the nation, has a national influence, and a national example, and do not turn us off with the inhospitable excuse that another and inferior jurisdiction may do this, and not the nation. Through our whole history, the nation's voice has never been heard in an effective effort to recognize agriculture, by a separate institution, or to throw around it any of the Governmental patronage or influence, or to clothe it with science and skill, so that its national honors may be borne and enjoyed by its occupants.

From General Washington down to the present Chief Magistrate, every recommendation to establish a board for its elevation and improvement has been entirely neglected.

Every report from committees upon this subject has been permitted to sleep upon the table, and not even a discussion provoked.

The great and primary object of this bureau is to elevate the social condition of the agriculturist, and increase his means and facilities for improvement. That this is necessary, all will admit. We need not go beyond our Hall to see how few farmers are selected as national legislators. Look to your professions and mechanics, and see their skill and productions; then cast the mind of the nation, in the person of its representatives, over the country; let each Congressional district be examined, and see how few model farms are to be found, and how few prize articles possessed. See how few farms that may not be greatly improved, in price, value and productions. Look to your agricultural products that are sent abroad, and see how many are branded as unmerchantable, or second rate, and compare the general reputation they bear abroad with our mechanical inventions and improvements, and the answer can better be understood than expressed. It is the sentiment of every patriot, that "it should be the study of every statesman, and the primary object of every legislator, to elevate the agricultural interest." It can never be done in any other way than by the action of the nation; it never has been in any other country, and never will be in this. There are in all revivals, religious or political, times of declension, and unless there is some general power above and below to guide and sustain them, they will fade away. Here the science can be concentrated and diffused by the national Representatives. Let the farming interest see that the General Government will give them any aid in this great movement for advancement, and you will electrify all their efforts, and warm into life thousands of others. Repulse it, and you freeze that which is now alive.

I have said that agriculture was the first employment of our citizens. General Washington, the Father of our Country, was a practical farmer. As early as 1786, we find him engaged in sending abroad for seeds and implements of husbandry. On the 6th of August, of that year, in writing to Arthur Young, of England, he says:

> "I shall take the liberty, in this place, to observe, that some years ago, from a description or recommendation of what was then called the Rotherham, or patent plough, I sent to England for one of them; and, till it began to wear, and was ruined by a country smith, no plough could have done better work, or appeared to have gone easier with two horses."

In the same communication, he says:

> "Agriculture has ever been among the most favorite amusements of my life, though I never possessed much skill in the art.
>
> "The system of agriculture, if the epithet of system can be applied to it, which is in use in this part of the United States, is as unproductive to the practitioners as it is ruinous to the land-holders. *Yet it is pertinaciously adhered to.*"

On the first of November, 1787, in another letter to the same man, he says:

> "Our lands, as I mentioned in my first letter to you, were originally very good, but use and abuse have made them quite otherwise."

In the same letter, he enters into a particular description of the price of products. "Wheat," he says, "for the last four years has been worth four shillings sterling by the bushel; rye, two shillings and fourpence; oats, one shilling and sixpence," and gives the price of a great variety of other articles. To Mr. Young, December 4th, 1788, he says:

> "I cannot help thinking, that improving our breed of sheep would be one of the most profitable speculations we could undertake. Though we do not feed them on leaves, as you say they do in some parts of France, yet we cannot want for pasture enough suitable for them. I am glad to find you are likely to succeed in propagating the Spanish breed of sheep in England, and that the wool does not degenerate, for the multiplication of useful animals is a common blessing to mankind."

Again he says:

> "I have a prospect of introducing into this country a very excellent race of animals also, by means of the liberality of the King of Spain. One of the jacks he was pleased to send me is about fifteen hands high, his body and limbs very large in proportion to his height; and the mules I have had from him appear to be extremely well formed for business. I have likewise a jack and two jennets from Malta, of a good size, which the Marquis de La Fayette sent me. From these I hope to secure a race of extraordinary goodness, which will stock the country. Their longevity and cheap keeping will be circumstances much in their favor. I am convinced from the little experiments I have made with ordinary mules, which

perform as much labor, with vastly less feeding, than horses, that those of a superior quality will be the best cattle we can employ for the harness; and, indeed, in a few years, I intend to drive no other in my carriage, having appropriated upwards of twenty of my best mares to breeding them."

To the same man, under date 5th December, 1791, he says:

> "The English farmer must entertain a contemptible opinion of our husbandry, or a horrid idea of our land, when he is to be informed that not more than eight or ten bushels of wheat is the yield of an acre."

To cure these evils, so general and so much to be deprecated, and to introduce the advantages and improvements necessary and desirable, while President in 1791, he issued a circular to many of the most experienced and influential men in the business of agriculture, in the States of New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, among whom were Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton, to collect statistics as to the value of land, its culture, the kind of articles produced, and their quality and price. The information was extensively communicated, and left on record for the information and imitation of those who may come after him. "This kind of general and important information is one great object now sought by this Board." In his correspondence with Sir John Sinclair, also of England, under date July 20th, 1794, he says:

> "I know of no pursuit in which more real and important services can be rendered to any country than by improving its agriculture, its breed of useful animals, and other branches of a husbandman's cares; nor can I conceive any plan more conducive to this end, than the one you have introduced for bringing to view the actual state of them in all parts of the kingdom, by which good and bad habits are exhibited in a manner too plain to be misconstrued."

Again he says, under the same date:

> "It will be some time, I fear, before an agricultural society, with Congressional aids, will be established in this country. We must walk, as others have done, before we can run. Small societies must prepare the way for greater; but, with the lights before us, I hope we shall not be so long in maturation as other nations have been."

Here we have his prophetic vision clearly expressed, as early as 1794, after the lapse of nearly sixty years, fulfilled by smaller societies moving the nation to acquiesce in these movements for improvement.

Again, in the same letter, he gives an illustration of his improvement:

> "Nor is the wool of our sheep inferior to that of your common ones—as a proof: after the peace of Paris, in 1783, and my return to the occupation of a farmer, I paid particular attention to my breed of sheep, (of which I usually keep about seven or eight hundred,) by which attention, at the shearing of 1789, the fleeces yielded me the average quantity of five and a quarter pounds of wool."

Again, in writing on the 10th of July, 1795, to Mr. Sinclair, and speaking of their Board of Agriculture, he says:

> "From the first intimation you were pleased to give me of this institution, I conceived the most favorable ideas of its utility; and the more I have seen and reflected on the plan since, the more I am convinced of its importance, in a national point of view, not only to your own country, but to all others which are not too much attached to old and bad habits to forsake them, and to new countries that are just beginning to form systems for the improvement of their husbandry."

Here I digress from his correspondence for a short time, to consider the messages immediately preceding his recommendation to Congress to establish a Board. In his third annual message, 25th October, 1791, he says:

"Your own observation, in your respective situations, will have satisfied you of the progressive state of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and navigation."

Again, in his message of 8th December, 1795, he says:

"Our agriculture, commerce, and manufactures are flourishing."

Always placing agriculture in the front rank, with a mind well stored with knowledge and experience, by practical agriculture, as well as by extensive correspondence with men of science and experience in the practical operations of national Boards. On the 7th of December, 1796, in his eighth and last annual message, he says:

"It will not be doubted that, with reference to either national or individual welfare, agriculture is of primary importance. In proportion as nations advance in population and other circumstances of maturity, this truth becomes more apparent, and renders the cultivation of the soil more and more an object of public patronage. Institutions for promoting it grow up, supported by the public purse —and to what object can it be dedicated with greater propriety? Among the means which have been employed to this end, none have been attended with greater success than the establishment of Boards, composed of proper characters, charged with collecting and diffusing information, and enabled, by premiums and small pecuniary aids, to encourage and assist a spirit of discovery and improvement, by stimulating to enterprise and experiment, and by drawing to a common centre the results everywhere of individual skill and observation, and spreading them thence over the whole nation. Experience, accordingly, hath shown that they are very cheap instruments of immense national benefit."

This sentence in the last annual message of General Washington, is the last official sentiment upon this subject expressed by one whom the united voice of the world consent to call one of the greatest men the world ever produced, taking all the relations of life—one whom every American is proud to call the Father of his Country, and whom all have consented to place before us as a perpetual monitor—one whose Farewell Address (pronounced in September, before this sentiment was uttered) all agree is a textbook for all time after. How, may I not ask, has this sentiment (full of wisdom, experience, and practical utility) been considered and treated? I answer, entirely neglected for more than half a century; and why, I will by and by give an answer in his own words.

On the 11th of January after this message, Judge Swift, of Connecticut, to whom was referred the message of the President, made a report, setting forth the great advantages the people of America have over the people of other countries, by being the fee-simple owners of their land; and if the business of agriculture was encouraged and patronized by the government, we should become the most enlightened nation upon that subject. He also sets forth that many agricultural societies have been formed throughout the United States, but were on too limited a scale to answer the purpose for the United States, and recommended that there be a national agricultural society formed, and from it a Board selected, giving his plan in detail; and upon this report no action was had by Congress. On the 6th of March of the same year, (1797,) General Washington writes again to Mr. Sinclair, as follows:

"Under the circumstances here mentioned, I should not have troubled you at this time with so short a letter, but for the purpose of accompanying it with two or three pamphlets on the subject of agriculture; one of which treats more extensively on gypsum as a manure than any I have seen before. The other two will only serve to show that essays of similar kind are making in this infant country.

"I am sorry to add, that nothing final in Congress has been decided respecting the institution of a National Board of Agriculture, recommended by me at the opening of the session. But this did not, I believe, proceed from any disinclina-

> tion to the measure, but from their limited sitting, and a pressure of what they conceived more important business. I think it highly probable that next session will bring this matter to maturity."

The great object I have in introducing this correspondence is, to show at one view his thorough knowledge of the plan recommended, and to see if this House will regard his opinions upon this subject as entitled to the same weight they have upon the great and exciting subject now occupying the public mind; and if I fail in this, it will console and encourage the enterprising farmer to persevere in his efforts to improve the soil and the domestic animals of the country, and to strive to elevate the farming interest to its proper level; and to point the youth of the country to the soil, as the great fountain of wealth, honor, and fame.

Here he sets forth the reason a Board was not formed, for he says: "It did not arise, as I suppose, from any disinclination to the measure, but their limited sitting, and the pressure of what they conceived more important business." Here, again, is a clear expression, that he regarded that as the most important business; and Congress had omitted it, because they supposed they had more important things to do. He says: "He supposed the next session would perfect it." He continued his correspondence with Mr. Sinclair upon the same subject, down to a few days before the meeting of the next Congress, and that session passed over and nothing done; and about the time of the next Congress, 1799, he died, and with him the advocate of the farmer. Our subsequent history is but that of a gigantic nation, spreading its wings over most of the Western hemisphere, without stopping to consider the details of policy by which we can secure, perpetuate, and improve that which we have, but to get more and more. While excitement and enterprise swell every heart, and animate every legislative body, can we not profitably pause for a few moments, to consider the details of that policy, so thoroughly studied, practised, understood, and earnestly recommended by one who, through life, guided, sustained, and conducted us from a little band of patriots, to a great and model nation?

Mr. Jefferson, in his sixth annual message, recommends a national establishment for education. He uses this language:

> "Not that it would be proposed to take its ordinary branches out of the hands of private enterprise, which manage so much better all the concerns to which it is equal; but a public institution can alone supply those sciences which, though rarely called for, are yet necessary to complete the circle, all the parts of which contribute to the improvement of the country, and some of them to its preservation."

Mr. Madison, in his sixth annual message, says:

> "The present is a favorable season, also, for bringing again into view the establishment of a national seminary of learning within the District of Columbia, and with means drawn from the property therein, subject to the authority of the General Government. Such an institution claims the patronage of Congress, as a monument of their solicitude for the advancement of knowledge, without which the blessings of liberty cannot be fully enjoyed or long preserved."

Mr. Monroe, in his second message, says:

> "The conduct of the government in what relates to foreign powers is always an object of the highest importance to the nation. Its agriculture, commerce, manufactures, fisheries, revenue—in short, its peace, may all be affected by it. Attention is therefore due to this subject."

Mr. Adams, in his fourth annual message, recommends attention to agriculture, in conjunction with commerce and other interests.

The opinions entertained by Presidents succeeding Mr. Adams, down to the time of Mr. Polk, I have not the time to examine critically, in relation to their particular views, further than to copy a single sentence of President Jackson, in the commencement of his third annual message:

> "Agriculture, the first and most important occupation of man, has compensated the labors of the husbandman with plentiful crops of all the varied products of our extensive country."

President Polk, in his fourth annual message, says:

> "With the repeal of the prohibitory and restrictive duties of the act of 1842, the great and important interests of agriculture, which had been not only too much neglected, but actually taxed, under the protective policy, for the benefit of other interests, have been relieved of the burdens which that policy imposed on them; and our farmers and planters, under the more just and liberal commercial policy, are finding new and profitable markets abroad for their augmented products."

That part of the President's Message was referred to the Committee on Agriculture; and a very full report emanated from that Committee, showing clearly that the farming interest had received no aid at all under the law of 1846, over that of 1842. This subject I cannot now consider, and all I introduce it for is to show his opinion, that that interest had been too long neglected.

The agricultural societies that sprung up during the life of General Washington, died away at his death, and, within the last few years, have been again revived and increased; the particulars of which I will by and by show, and with them the public attention again called to the original object of General Washington.

What a happy thing it is for this government, that the crowded page of history, after nearly sixty years, can be reviewed with so much satisfaction and profit!

President Taylor, in his annual message of December, 1849, called the attention of Congress directly to this subject, in the following manner:

> "No direct aid has been given by the General Government to the improvement of agriculture, except by the expenditure of small sums for the collection and publication of agricultural statistics, and for some chemical analyses, which have been thus far paid for out of the patent fund. This aid is, in my opinion, wholly inadequate. To give to this leading branch of American industry the encouragement which it merits, I respectfully recommend the establishment of an agricultural bureau, to be connected with the Department of the Interior. To elevate the social condition of the agriculturist, to increase his prosperity, and to extend his means of usefulness to his country, by multiplying his sources of information, should be the study of every statesman, and a primary object with ever legislator."

Upon this message, and resolutions of several State Legislatures, Vermont, New-York, (nearly or quite unanimous,) Massachusetts, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, Alabama, and State Boards of Ohio and New-York, and of agricultural societies, and also petitions extensively from individuals, a bill from the minority of the Committee upon Agriculture was presented to the House, on the 31st of July, 1850, to establish an agricultural bureau, and laid upon the table; and there it remained, and was never called up. And from all this mass of evidence, and the weight of its influence, and the demands and wants of more than *eighteen millions* of people—this little bill, from the minority of the Committee, is the *product*, and the only product. May not the farmers of the country be constrained to cry out, "Our voice is not heard; our prayers are not regarded; our interests are passed over with too much indifference?"

Within the last two years, that prophetic declaration of General Washington, that smaller societies must move the nation, to which I before referred, is being more strongly demonstrated. New-York has a State society, and from seventy to eighty county societies. Pennsylvania has from twelve to twenty county societies, and many grouped together. Ohio has a State society, and seventy county societies. Massachusetts has twelve societies, and in many of these societies several counties together. Michigan has twenty county societies. Indiana, a State society. Kentucky, five county societies. Georgia, a State society, and fifteen county societies. South Carolina has six county societies. Virginia has a State society, and three county societies. Maryland, a State society, and four county societies. Vermont, a State society, and four county societies, and was the first *State* to ask us to establish a National Board. New-Hampshire, a State society, and eight or nine county societies, and also asked Congress to establish a board. Connecticut, a number of county societies. Rhode Island has also passed resolutions asking Congress to establish a Board. Maine has six county societies. Iowa, a State society, and six or eight county societies. Wisconsin, a State society. Illinois, three county societies. Tennessee has some county societies, and two years since unanimously recommended a National Board. Florida has passed a resolution for a National Board. Louisiana, in 1848, passed a law for a bureau.

President Fillmore, in full view of the increasing agricultural interests of the country, and with great practical wisdom, on the 2d day of December, 1850, made the following recommendation:—

> "More than three-fourths of our population are engaged in the cultivation of the soil. The commercial, manufacturing, and navigating interests are all, to a great extent, dependent on the agricultural. It is, therefore, the most important interest of the nation, and has a just claim to the fostering care and protection of the government, so far as they can be extended consistently with the provisions of the Constitution. As this cannot be done by the ordinary modes of legislation, I respectfully recommend the establishment of an agricultural bureau, to be charged with the duty of giving to this leading branch of American industry the encouragement which it so well deserves. In view of the immense mineral resources of our country, provision should also be made for the employment of a competent mineralogist and chemist, who should be required, under the direction of the head of the bureau, to collect specimens of the various minerals of our country, and to ascertain, by careful analyses, their respective elements and properties, and their adaptation to useful purposes. He should also be required to examine and report upon the qualities of different soils, and the manures best calculated to improve their productiveness. By publishing the results of such experiments, with suitable explanations, and by the collection and distribution of rare seeds and plants, with instructions as to the best system of cultivation, much may be done to promote this great national interest."

Upon this message last year in the House, no bill was reported, or action had. In the Senate a bill was reported, but no action.

Secretaries Ewing and Stuart, in their annual reports, both strongly recommend a board.

At this Session, President Fillmore again makes the following recommendation:—

> "Agriculture may justly be regarded as the great interest of our people. Four-fifths of our active population are employed in the cultivation of the soil, and the expansion of our settlements over new territory is daily adding to the number of those engaged in that vocation. Justice and sound policy, therefore, alike require that the government should use all the means authorized by the Constitution to promote the interests and welfare of that important class of our fellow-citizens. And yet it is a singular fact that, whilst the manufacturing and commercial interests have engaged the attention of Congress during a large portion of every session, and our statutes abound in provisions for their protection and encouragement,

little has yet been done directly for the advancement of agriculture. It is time that this reproach to our legislation should be removed; and I sincerely hope that the present Congress will not close their labors without adopting efficient means to supply the omissions of those who have preceded them.

"An agricultural bureau, charged with the duty of collecting and disseminating correct information as to the best modes of cultivation, and of the most effectual means of preserving and restoring the fertility of the soil, and of procuring and distributing seeds and plants and other vegetable productions, with instructions in regard to the soil, climate, and treatment best adapted to their growth, could not fail to be, in the language of Washington, in his last annual message to Congress, a 'very cheap instrument of immense national benefit.'"

And is it not due to his official relation, after his repeated recommendation, that we act either for or against it?—and which way? is the question.

General Washington, Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Madison, Mr. Monroe, and Mr. Adams, for a period of thirty-six years consecutively, all recommended an improvement of agriculture, or national schools; and the same principles and powers are involved in each of their recommendations, and no one of the subsequent presidents advising against it; Mr. Taylor and Mr. Fillmore strongly recommending, and their secretaries; the resolutions of legislatures, petitions of agricultural societies and of the people, and the interest of eighteen millions of our inhabitants, yea, of the whole, I ask, if all this combined is entitled to any attention, to any consideration? It has received but very little. But I am told there is a patent office, and the farmers are abundantly enlightened with the crumbs that fall from its table. The patent office, until 1831, during General Jackson's administration, when he called Mr. Ellsworth to it, was a burlesque, and is now, upon farming, compared with the wants of this great nation. Mr. Ellsworth was a practical farmer; but he had all to do, and nothing to do with. He was the first in that office to give any attention to agriculture. But the first appropriation for that object was in 1839, $1,000, for collecting agricultural statistics; in 1842, $1,000; in 1843, $2,000; in 1844, $2,000; in 1845, $3,000; in 1847, $3,000; in 1848, $3,500; in 1849, $3,500; in 1850, $4,500; in 1851, $5,500;—total $29,000 in seventy-five years. The cost of printing is not included, and cannot be ascertained, as the report of the Commissioner was all published in one volume until the last two years. What can this small pittance do for this great nation? Scarcely enough in any one year to defray the ordinary expenses of correspondence.

The fund is to be distributed by the Commissioner of Patents, who is not selected for his knowledge of agriculture, (whose main business is of a different character, and more than he can do,) and may or may not be acquainted with it. The business must therefore be done by an unaccredited agent. Where is our agricultural department? Pent up in the cellar of the patent office, and cannot be found at midday without a candle; and when found, a single clerk, struggling to get up the report. When it is up and out, there are but four hundred volumes for each Congressional district of one hundred thousand population, and that a reading people; and there is more call for this document than all others of a public character, and fast gaining in reputation from editors over the Union, and the public generally, inadequate as it is.

There is no country where the mind is so inquisitive and information so generally desired and possessed as in America. Travel over the whole world and return, and the truth is seen and felt more palpably. To us the masses of the world are looking for improvement, physically and morally, and for it they seek us in thousands daily. In the United States there are but about thirty agricultural periodicals published, and there are five hundred thousand copies taken and read by the people—a mere drop to the ocean. There are agricultural journals in the State of New-York that have six times greater circulation than any single paper of the kind in Europe. This only shows how great the thirst we ought to assist in gratifying. In America there is not an agricultural school aided or patronized by the government; and, in fact, it may be said, there is none at all. Some are just beginning to struggle for life, but the faint, feeble feeling of the General Government infuses itself into every part of its great family, and paralyzes the whole body. There is not what may be regarded as a text-book in any branch of agriculture or rural economy in America.

Compare what America as a nation has done with what has been done by other nations. I can but glance at it. Russia has in all sixty-eight schools and colleges. She has an agricultural institution with forty college buildings, occupying three thousand acres of land, and attended by several thousand students. The Agricultural Society of St. Petersburg was established by Queen Catharine. There are under the patronage of the French government seventy school farms, besides five first-class colleges, in which professors are employed to lecture on botany, zoology, chemistry, agriculture, and the treatment of diseases in cattle; on the culture of woods, forests, &c. These are supported throughout the country. National establishments for the improvement of breeds of stock, and colleges for the education of veterinary surgeons, and investigating the uses of all discoveries contemplated for agricultural improvement. The government expend in three veterinary schools a year for instruction, 754,200 francs; for instruction in agriculture, 2,731,468 francs; for encouragement in agriculture, 700,000 francs; for improvement in the breeds of horses and science connected with it alone, 1,776,400 francs. The requirements for admission into these veterinary schools are as follows: The applicant must be not less than seventeen years of age, and not over twenty-five, and have the following qualifications: to be able to forge a horse or ox shoe after two heatings—pass an examination in the French language arithmetic, and geography, and after four years' study, is permitted to practise veterinary surgery, and receive a diploma. In Belgium great attention is paid to the subject. There are a hundred agricultural schools or colleges established by the government—a high school of veterinary surgery. The science of agriculture is the most fashionable in the kingdom. They have their palaces furnished more or less with rare specimens of the products of the land, and are farmed like a garden. These facts I know, having travelled over considerable part of that country. In Saxony they have five schools; in Bavaria, thirty-five; in Wurtemberg, seven; in Austria, thirty-three; in Prussia, thirty-two; in Italy, two; in Scotland, two; in Ireland, sixty-three. The one at Glassnevin, near Dublin, I visited. It now consists of one hundred and twenty-eight acres of good land, and convenient buildings, and are about to add to their farm, and increase their buildings so as to accommodate one hundred or more students. With the teacher, Mr. Donaghy, I became acquainted. He is an intelligent, practical man. With him I viewed the farm, and their farming and buildings, &c., and it is carried on very successfully. These schools are doing more for Ireland than any other attention the government is giving them. They have colleges and agricultural schools in England sustained by the government—some four or five with large farms attached to them—where all the sciences connected with the general business are taught with great perfection, and millions of money each year invested in the general science of agriculture by the nation. It is an investment, and not an expenditure. Other countries are engaged in the same business, but I cannot go further into detail. Sufficient is said to draw a parallel between their views and ours. Abroad they invest millions each year in a country not larger than an average of our States. Here, in all our country, for seventy-five years, for the general object we have expended $29,000.

I come now to consider the provisions of the bill proposed by your committee. We present what we supposed could be passed rather than what the capacity and wants of the country in all respects required. It is in the most unexceptionable shape we could devise and mature.

The first section provides that there shall be established, at the seat of Government of the United States, an agricultural bureau, the head of which shall be called "the Commissioner of Agriculture," whose term shall be four years, appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate, and shall receive a yearly salary, of $3,000.

The second section provides that the Commissioner shall collect agricultural statistics; procure and distribute valuable grains, seeds, cuttings, buds, and tubers; procure and put in operation a chemical laboratory at a cost not exceeding $2,000, and cause to be made all desirable analyses of minerals and mineral waters, and such as relate to the composition and improvement of soils, and to collect information of the same, and of the proportions and uses of soils; feeding of domestic animals; preparation and preservation of provisions and breadstuffs; the culture of cotton, rice, corn, wheat, flax, hemp, and sugar, and such manufactures as may be directly connected with agriculture and arise immediately out of agricultural products; and to prepare and make, annually, a full report to Congress, containing an account of such experiments as may have been made, and such useful information as he may have obtained in the duties of his office; and all the duties appertaining to agriculture shall be transferred from the patent office to this.

The third section provides that there shall be appointed by the Commissioner a chemist, at a salary of $2,0[illegible]0; a chief clerk, at a salary of $1,600; one recording clerk, $1,000; and one messenger, $750 a year.

Here is a bill as simple and plain as the elements of our government, as express and explicit as language can make it in all its details, and embracing an outlay of $10,350. The general policy of the nation appears to be agricultural rather than manufacturing; to buy our merchandise rather than to make it. Many of those who have been engaged in manufacturing must turn their attention to agriculture for want of other business. It is the main business in which foreigners, as they come to our country, can engage. Our new country is being opened and settled rapidly with enterprising farmers.

There is a general increased attention to agriculture within the last few years over the world. More has been done in Europe in six years than has been in twenty before to improve it; more in America in five years past than in forty-five before. Since the present session began, four States have passed resolutions, almost unanimous, as I am informed, asking this organization—Florida, New-Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Indiana.

The present proposition is not a new principle, but only an improvement upon our present policy. Last year, $5,500 was appropriated; now we only ask the appropriation to be distributed by an accredited agent. Every member of this House, who has or will bestow any attention to the manner in which the business is now done, can but see that some improvement is necessary. The first and most obvious one would appear to be, a disconnection from the Patent Office. It does not appear to have any more necessary connection with it than it would have with the War or Navy Office.

All communications upon this business are addressed to the Patent Office, and from the vast amount of the business of that office, these communications can receive only a passing and incidental attention, and passed to the clerk of agriculture, who is only temporarily employed to do the business. He may be only engaged for one month, or for six, or for twelve. The appropriation is only for a year, and it may end entirely at the end of the year. There may be twelve different clerks employed in the year, and each one have a different mode of doing the business. No method or system is required, and no one has any object or credit to make it systematic and methodical. Detach it from its present connection, and you necessarily require that the duties be defined, and that some one take charge. It is objected by some that the General Government should not interfere, for it belongs to the States. The States refuse with precisely the same reason and force that induce the Government to decline, and say that it does not belong to them, but individuals should do it. Individuals refuse, because the States and General Government refuse, and there is nothing done. There is not a township in the United States where an improvement connected with agriculture is proposed, that a majority of the farmers would not refuse co-operation also, from the influence the national negative would have. Such is a nation's influence, and such its examples upon the people; and has been through our whole history. The science of agriculture sprang up in the days of Washington, Jefferson, Swift, and others, and struggled for a common head and a common fountain, that might supply all the streams of commerce and want over the land, and for want of it withered away. It has sprung up since, and strove for the same object, and died away from the same cause. It is now springing up again, and extending as our common country has extended and increased, and as our common wants multiply and extend—is making a vigorous effort, and calling loud, long, and often, upon the nation for this common head, this common fountain; and if it is repulsed and fail, its fate will be the same, yea, worse, for it is loaded with the weight of many defeats, and the wails of many millions.

Nations stand to States and individuals as parents do to their offspring; and with us this relation is exceedingly forcible, numerous and endearing; for our children are increasing as the sands of the sea, and seem to be covering the whole earth. Already their cries for aid, protection, and instruction reach us from the Rocky Mountains. This relation imposes reciprocal duties and obligations from one to the other. From us to our offspring, aid, protection, and instruction, and from them to us fidelity. And may this relation, through all time, be preserved, cherished, and cemented. The children, yes, the children of this great agricultural family ask, *yea*, importune the parent, the nation, for a head, for a fountain, to which they can look for instruction, science, and wisdom, to guide them in their infancy, and sustain them in old age. Do not repel us with the negative—that the family is numerous, the wants many, and the expenses great. We reply, you begat us, and bear us; you have scattered us over the face of the earth, to you alone can we look, and to you will we cling. Grant the prayer, and the protection is visible, and the fidelity enduring. But I am told agriculture should be free, unprotected, untaught. These terms free, freedom, and free trade, in their latitudinous and indiscriminate use, are as unmeaning and suicidal as it would be for a nation to let loose and unbridle all the passions and propensities of her subjects, and the reins of her government; or for a parent to say to his child, at its birth, go, be free to your maturity; or for the agriculturist to dig out the bowels of the earth and return nothing to it, and turn it off because it is worn out. No, this will never do. The agriculturist asks for nothing that interferes with the general well-digested views of any member of this body. We only ask for the scientific influence and power of the Government, to aid and direct all our various avenues of freedom and enterprise away from the shoals and quicksands that beset our path, without a chart or compass. We propose only to furnish at the seat of Government, where all our nation centres, where all other nations centre to transact business, a scientific organ or agent of our own creation, to analyze our soil and accumulate information in the manner we propose, and send it over the country broadcast, in the shape of reports, for the benefit and improvement of the masses.

Permit me to give a single instance of the result of analyzing soils in our immediate vicinity, which I got from the public journals, and from Mr. Johnson himself.

Hon. Reverdy Johnson, in 1849, bought a farm near Baltimore, so poor that the last crop of corn would not yield a peck to the acre, and all plants and vegetables growing upon the two hundred acres would not make a load of manure. He applied to a chemist, who analyzed the soil and found all the elements of fertility except phosphoric acid, and no trace of that. He recommended a preparation of bones, which was applied at an expense of ten dollars an acre. Health was restored to the deserted soil, and the next crop was twenty-nine bushels of wheat to the acre. That soil is of a similar character to all the poor and partially deserted soil about this region. Who knows, and who may not rationally infer from this single example, that your chemist in a single year, in your own neighborhood, may not earn and save enough to this nation to pay his salary for fifty years?

But I am told by some honorable members of our committee, for whom I entertain a high regard, that the plan is unconstitutional. What! Is it to be said that America is the largest landholder in the world, and yet the poorest farmer? and that there is no remedy, no cure; for she has engrafted into her own organic law seeds, the fruit of which will produce her own decay and destruction? No, it is a mistake: it cannot be.

The length of my remarks forbid dwelling long upon this.

I have already said, by this plan we propose nothing new, only an improvement upon our adopted policy. We have the same power to do this that we have to establish the Navy, War, and other deparments and bureaus, to transact our business; the same power, as to employ hands constantly to improve and ornament the public grounds at Washington. The science we propose to accumulate and diffuse, by this agency, is as directly applicable to the Government and its prosperity and welfare as it is to individuals and their welfare. Your coast and geological surveys, and a vast variety of others, are of the same character and family, except that those are more local in their effects, and this more general, and therefore less objectionable. To apply this construction to the great agricultural interest of the country, when it is not extended to any other interest besides, would be strange indeed. But the Constitution provides that Congress may do whatever is necessary for the general welfare of the United States. This question resolves itself into one of fact, and not of law. Suppose it became necessary to cut a ditch, as an outlet to a million acres of swamp land, belonging to the Government, now worth nothing, but by it worth five dollars an acre, could it not be done? We have power to make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory and other property of the United States. This bureau relates directly to the elements of our soil and its improvement, as does the ditch, or the ornamental trees and shrubs of your public grounds.

Art. XI.—RAILROAD INTELLIGENCE.

It appears by the late annual report of the Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Wilmington Railroad Company, that the whole number of through first-class passengers, including through tickets to and from other roads, and passengers between Philadelphia and Baltimore, on the railroad in 1852, was 128,428½, paying $374,512 48; of second-class, 8,409, paying $16,122 87. Total from through passengers in 1852, $390,635 34. The whole number of first class in 1853, was 177,348, paying $513,219 80; of second class, 7,736½, paying $15,217. Total from through passengers in 1853, $528,436

80, showing a gain of $137,801 46 in the through travel, including that between Philadelphia and Baltimore, by railroad, as compared with the year before.

The whole number of way passengers, by the railroad line, in 1852, was 251,918½, paying $132,129 48. In 1853, the number was 331,578½, paying $168,181 20, showing a gain in receipts from way travel of $36,051 72, and a gain in numbers of 79,660 passengers.

In regard to the depreciation of iron upon railroad tracks, we have the following from the last report of the Western Railroad of Massachusetts:—

> "The road from Springfield to Albany, 102 miles, is of a single track. This part of the road was opened through to Albany in 1842, and since 1851 about 36 miles have been relaid with new iron, while it is expected that about 20 miles will require to be relaid each year for the next three years. At the end of fourteen years, therefore, from the opening of the road it will have been relaid throughout with new iron. The business over the road is heavy. We are not able to state precisely the business done over *this part* of the line, but the whole line from Worcester to Albany, 156 miles, and which now has 44 miles of second track, has borne the wear of 8,135,778 miles of running by locomotives, from the first of January, 1842, to November 30, 1853. The number of passengers carried in that time were 4,495,395, of which 362,193 were through passengers between Albany and Worcester. A large part of the *way* travel was received from the New-York City line of roads, the "way" travel having increased over 50 per cent. since 1849, the year of the opening of the New-York City line, while the "through" travel has increased only 13 per cent. in the same time. This "way" travel, received from New-York, enters the Western road at Springfield, and passes over the 54 miles between that point and Worcester. A movement of freight has been made over the Western road, from January 1, 1846, to November 30, 1853, equal to 1,244,532 tons over the whole length of the road, or equal to 194,137,108 tons moved one mile."

The following is condensed from the last report of the Charleston and Hamburg, South Carolina, Railroad:—

Passage, freight, mails, etc.	$1,215,279 21
And the expenses of the management, ordinary and extraordinary (the ordinary equal to 43 per cent.)	555,536 88
Leaving a balance of	663,742 33
Out of which have been provided interest on foreign and domestic debt, and for claims for damages, etc	199,773 72
And the remainder	463,968 61
Has afforded two dividends of 4 per cent. each, amounting to	311,376 00
And transferred a balance of	$152,592 61
To the credit of surplus income for the year.	

The Board of Public Works of Virginia have issued their annual report, which we find condensed in the *Railroad Journal.* It notices the progress and condition of the Blue Ridge Railroad, which is to form, when completed, a most important connection of the system of the State. The road is 17 miles long, has four tunnels, respectively 538, 830, 100, and 4,248 feet in length. All of these have proved difficult of construction. Ten miles of the Eastern end of the road are completed, and in the present month three miles on the Western end are to be opened. The short tunnels are expected to be completed within the present year, and in two, or at the most two and a half years, the main tunnel will be completed also. In the mean time the Virginia Central Company will operate their road over the temporary track lately planned and executed by the Engineer, Chas. Ellet, Jr., a description of which was lately published in the *Journal*.

The James River and Kanawha Canal is in progress from Buchanan to within thirty miles of Covington, in Alleghany County, at which latter point it has been decided it shall have its Western terminus. The stockholders of this work have conferred on the propriety of its sale to the State, or the conversion of its debt into stock upon terms subject to mutual agreement by the parties.

The report alludes in proper terms to the objects to be gained by extending the great East and West lines of the State to the four important points on the Ohio River, Wheeling, Parkersburg, Point Pleasant, and the mouth of the Big Sandy, at all of which they will be met by great lines in Ohio or Kentucky.

Other lines of road than those in which the State is a stockholder are alluded to, and represented as in a flourishing condition.

The report shows the entire length of railroads within the State, as 2,102, of which 1,049 are completed, (including 240 miles of the Baltimore and Ohio road,) and 873 miles are in progress. The authorized capital of all the roads, other than the Baltimore and Ohio, is $27,096,100, of which the State holds on her own account $6,102,497 17.

The Board has nearly effected negotiations in London for a large amount of State securities issued in aid of the public works.

From the report of Capt. Childs, of the Nashville and Cincinnati Railroad Company, it appears that there will be 2,950 miles of railroad converging to Nashville, and 3,850 miles to Lexington. The route of the Cincinnati road will be northeast and southwest, the direction of the Cumberland mountains. The receipts of the road are estimated at $1,081,250 per annum, the expenses $402,960, and the net income $678,290, or ten per cent. on six millions of dollars.

Several routes have been surveyed, in all of which Gallatin, in Sumner County, Tenn., and Glasgow, in Barron County, Ky., are intermediate points.

The most favorable route appears to be via Gallatin, the Hermitage, Scottsville, Glasgow, and Perryville to Danville.

The Governor of South Carolina recommends a further subscription, by the State, of $750,000 to the Blue Ridge Railroad, which proposes to connect Charleston with Louisville and Cincinnati. The route of the road will be through Edgefield, Abbeville, Anderson, Clayton, Rabun Gap, and Knoxville, Tenn. The Governor says:—

"By the act of incorporation of the Blue Ridge Railroad Company, passed by the last General Assembly, the guarantee of the State upon the bonds of the Company, to the extent of $1,250,000, was secured upon the following conditions:—First, that $500,000 should be previously subscribed to the capital stock of the said Blue Ridge Railroad Company in South Carolina, by responsible persons, companies, or corporations. Secondly, that such subscriptions should be made, or aid furnished to the railroad companies in North Carolina and Tennessee, designed to connect with that portion of the road lying in this State, as would give reasonable assurances of the construction of the said North Carolina and Tennessee roads. These conditions have been complied with.

"At rates agreed upon with contractors, the entire cost of the road, from Anderson to Knoxville, in Tennessee, together with necessary appurtenances, including interest accruing upon the bonds of the company until the completion of the road, will amount to the sum of about $7,500,000. To meet this outlay, the company estimate their resources at $6,700,000.

It will thus be seen that the means of the company will fall short of the estimated cost of the work about $800,000.

I have been enabled to ascertain that, by the terms of contract between Messrs. Bangs & Co., the work was to be commenced on the first of this month—and that a large portion of the surveys are completed, and found to present fewer obstacles than was at first supposed. A location has been made for tunnelling the Blue Ridge, and work allotted to contractors,—that their preliminary arrangements are in a state of forwardness,—that the districts through which the road will pass in this State will abundantly supply all the necessary labor,—that the citizens, both in this State and beyond it, have, with extraordinary unanimity, ceded the right of way without compensation—and that every circumstance tends favorable to an early and thorough completion of this enterprise.

Art. XII.—THE PRODUCTION OF COTTON.

The following is from the pen of John G. Henry, of Mobile, Ala.:—

The American crop has contended against many disadvantages; but as the system of planting cotton, cultivating it, and preparing it for market has been gradually improving, what has heretofore proved so disastrous, is somewhat remedied. With a long drouth in the spring, a good deal of wet in August and September, and a killing frost on the night of the 24th of October, sixteen days earlier than that of 1852, and fourteen days earlier than the year 1851, it will be cut off smartly, but I imagine not to the low figure which in former times it would have been brought to, for the reasons above stated. The crops of the past five years were, for—

1852-'3.	1851-'2.	1850-'1.	1840-'50.	1848-'9.	
3,262,000..........	3,015,000..........	2,355,000..........	2,097,000..........	2,729,000	—13,458,000

averaging 2,602,000 bales. Hence, it appears an average crop is 2,692,000 bales. This crop I estimate at 2,800,000 bales, allowing for all sorts, and it is proper to remark that a good deal of it will be ordinary, from the unusual quantity of rain which fell in the fall; and as planters have determined to strive more for quantity than quality, a style of cotton may be looked for below former standards; and as it can be cleaned by machinery so much easier than by the labor of the growers, it is, perhaps, as well.

The imports into Great Britain of American cotton fall short in 1851, 252,000 bales from that of 1852. The imports from Egypt fall about 100,000 bales short, and the East India imports exceed, for the same year, 272,000 bales.

The excessive imports in Europe from Egypt in 1852, arose from accumulated stocks having been sent forward, and the excessive imports this year from India are ascribed to the revolution going on in China, thereby attracting it to Europe. The falling off from our country is ascribable to our increased consumption, partly, and because much more of the crop of 1852 than usual was hurried to Great Britain, and arrived there previous to their 1st January account of stocks, &c. The supply from Egypt and India in this year, will not be greater than usual, while the falling off from this country, allowing for our increasing consumption and moderate crop, will not be less than 500,000 bales;—a falling off altogether of 700,000.

The subject of the supply of cotton is one of intense anxiety to English manufacturers; they are fully aware of the uncertainty of the crops in this country, and so very lucrative is its manufacture, so enormous has the consumption become, and so rapid is its increase, that, with any sort of a combination on the part of planters, prices could be greatly enhanced. The importance of the supply from this country demands the most careful attention, and let us coolly examine its prospects. We find that such is the demand for labor in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina, for Railroad, Mining, Naval Store and other purposes, that negro fellows are hiring for a price that is equivalent to 10 per cent. interest on a value of $2,000 each, and as such hire is also commanded in the more Southern cotton-growing States, the conclusion is irresistible that labor will be still further attracted from the culture of cotton to the many more profitable enterprises which court the pursuit of enlightened planters. The impulse to the Naval Store, Timber, and Lumber trade, is magical. The results of extensive cotton manufacturing in the South is beginning to develop themselves—and since they are so permanently profitable, while negroes are so very high, we may anticipate that capital will be more plenteously invested in them. I will not pretend that cotton planting with such crops as we have had for three years back, and such prices, is not remarkably profitable. Estimating negroes at old prices, this cannot be denied. But cotton crops are uncertain, and planting does not pay so well, as the investment in good stocks, in banks, railroads, insurance companies, manufactories, &c. Facts which are engaging the consideration of planters very generally.

In relation to the production of Cotton in this country, I will add in conclusion that parties may look to the crop of 1839–'40, and they find it was 2,178,000 bales. Then they may add up the succeeding eleven crops, which is 23,532,000 bales, and you find the average for the eleven years is only 2,139,000 bales. The average falling for the eleven years, actually below that of 1839–'40. Further, you may add the crops of the entire thirteen years together, inclusive of the last and largest crops ever known down to 1853, and your annual average is only 2,303,000 bales, less than an increase of six per cent. for thirteen years, or less than one half of one per cent. per annum—on the extent of the crop of 1839–'40.

Art. XIII.—BOOK NOTICES.

The Planter's Northern Bride. A novel, by Caroline Lee Hentz, author of Linda, Rena, Eoline, etc. Philadelphia: A. Hart. 1854. We are indebted to the gifted author of these volumes for a copy. They furnish a just and liberal view of Southern life, institutions, manners, and society, made up from a very large observation and experience. The author is a Northern lady who has long been a resident of the South. She speaks with eloquence and truthfulness, and vindicates the character of her adopted home from the vile aspersions of the ignorant and deluded of other quarters. Speaking of the relation of master and slave, she says, in her preface—

> "We have been touched and gratified by the exhibition of affectionate kindness and care on one side, and loyal and devoted attachment on the other. We have been especially struck with the cheerfulness and contentment of the slaves, and their usually elastic and buoyant spirits. From the abundant opportunities we have had of judging, we give it as our honest belief, that the negroes of the South are the happiest *laboring class* on the face of the globe; even subtracting from their portion of enjoyment all that can truly be said of their trials and sufferings. The fugitives who fly to the Northern States are no proof against the truth of this statement. They have most of them been made disaffected by the influence of others—tempted by promises which are seldom fulfilled. Even in the garden of Eden, the seeds of discontent and rebellion were sown; surely we need not wonder that they sometimes take root in the beautiful groves of the South."

Works of John C. Calhoun, vol. I. We are glad that the Appletons of New-York have undertaken the publication of this great national work, of which four volumes have already appeared. Two others will follow and complete the series. The volume before us contains the Essay on Government and the Constitution of the United States. It should be in the hands of every American citizen. No other public man ever studied the Constitution with the same intenseness and devotion that Mr. Calhoun did; and however persons may differ with him in any respect, no one can question the extraordinary grasp of mind with which he analyzed and elaborated his subjects. History will vindicate his fame as the greatest political philosopher of his age, and perhaps of any age.

Memoir of the Life and Character of Edmund Burke, with specimens of his Poetry and Letters, and an estimate of his genius and talents, compared with those of his great cotemporaries—a new edition, enlarged and revised by James Prior; 2 vols. Boston: Ticknor, Reed, & Fields. 1854. From Frank Taylor, Washington. To an attentive reader of the political and literary history of Great Britain, no name will more frequently attract attention than that of Edmund Burke, whether we consider the large space he occupied in the public eye, the original genius he possessed, the diversified talents he displayed, or the great events with which the whole of his public life was connected.

Hallucinations; or, the Rational History of Apparitions, Visions, Dreams, Magnetism, Somnambulism, &c. By A. Brierre de Boismont. First American, from the second enlarged and improved Paris edition. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blackiston. 1854. The author treats the important and hitherto neglected subject of hallucination in various points of view, inasmuch as it bears important relations to philosophy, medicine, religion, history, morality, and jurisprudence. The apparitions of Holy Writ are handled with a reverence befitting a Christian; whilst much light is thrown on the probable origin of the hallucinations of so many celebrated personages, whose character and actions were so exalted as to place them apparently above humanity. We are indebted to Taylor & Maury for a copy of the work.

History of Liberty. Part II. The Early Christians. By Samuel Eliot. Vol 2. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1853. From W. W. Morrison, Washington. We have already noticed Part I. of this work, and will have occasion to refer to it again.

NOTE TO SUBSCRIBERS.

Our friends who are indebted to the Review ought not to delay an hour in sending on the amount. In the very great enhancement of prices for printing and material of every sort, the profits of the Review, even with prompt payments, are reduced very much. Every delay is a positive loss, and embarrasses us without benefiting the subscriber. Let our friends bear this in mind. They will not wait for collectors, who always exact commission, but remit directly by mail. Such kindness and attention are, we trust, merited by a work which has labored long and assiduously, and in spite of every discouragement, in promotion of the industrial welfare and advancement of the Southern and Western country.

To those who have promptly remitted or paid to agents, our hearty thanks are returned.

Any deficient numbers or volumes of the Review will be supplied to subscribers.

The Editor takes occasion to state that he still retains, and has ever held the exclusive editorial charge of the Review, and that no one else whatever is interested in its proprietary. His location at Washington, in the service of the Government, has been but of a temporary character.

A few sets of the Industrial Resources still remain on hand.

* Wool Trade page 466

DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL
OF
Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, Internal Improvements,
Statistics, etc., etc.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

VOL. XVI. MAY, 1854. No. 5.

Art. I.—THE DECIMAL SYSTEM OF MEASURES.

In a country politically so circumstanced as the United States, it is no disparagement to the general intelligence of the people, or evidence of a stubbornness of genius, that in matters of a purely conventional nature, it should sometimes betray a backwardness in adopting reforms, or exhibit a stationary condition while adhering to the customs and prejudices of an anterior age. The chief difficulty in the way of generalizing a measure in the United States, which cannot be realized or enforced by the operation of law, consists in the want of a central power, with means and appliances adequate to meet the calls which emergency makes upon it. In merely conventional matters, the General Government has no part, either as a party concurring with the will of the States in their supreme capacity, or as the supreme power, to which the States submit in a subordinate capacity. This peculiarity in the political form of our government it is difficult to make a foreigner understand; and when he is brought to understand it, he is still at a loss how to appreciate it. That a sovereignty can exist within a sovereignty, is to him paradoxical; that each is supreme over and subordinate to each other, is a mythical anomaly. It therefore has caused much surprise, that while in the arts and sciences, and in physical industry, the people of the United States have made such considerable progress, they should be, in many respects, as regards their social relations, so far behind less progressive nations.

This fact is exemplified in nothing more palpably than in the little advancement we have shown in modifying our standards of weights and measures. It has been unjustly charged against us that we cling through prejudice to the old standards, while a reform has been going on throughout Europe; but they who make the charge do not reflect that thirty-one States have a sovereign voice in choosing each for itself, and that, therefore, they are in the relative condition of thirty-one independent nations. Further, they do not consider that, by the very nature of our State and General forms of government, a complexity exists, which not even concert of action can wholly simplify or disentangle; and hence that reform, in this respect, is not retarded by public sentiment, or the stubbornness of genius, but by an obstacle in the fundamental organism. The General Government, for its own purposes, may adopt the metrical system; the States, for their individual purposes, may adopt the old arrangement: here is at once a conflict. The General Government, in its custom-houses, at its military posts, and elsewhere, may use the metrical measures; a few States, in their market-houses, in their workshops, and in their commercial affairs, may do the same; but both are again in conflict with those States which adhere to the old plan. The "inversion and reversion of sovereignty," as exercised by the States singly and as a federative whole, will prevent anything like spontaneous and universal reform in the conventional system of the Union; and that which is effected at all, must be gradual, and proceed from mutual concession, before our national legislature can assume the responsibility of declaring definitive action.

A pamphlet before us, entitled "A Letter to the Hon. Hannibal Hamlin, Chairman of the Committee on Commerce in the United States Senate, &c., by Alexandre Vattemare," discloses the fact, that Mr. Vattemare's good services have been engaged in exchanging sets of the standards of weights and measures of France and the United States between the two governments, and in endeavoring to bring the authorities of both countries to appreciate more intimately the distinctive features of the two systems. The metrical arrangement, where understood, is held in pre-eminent esteem, which is a strong guaranty that it possesses excellences not attained by any other system.

The arrangement common with us was originally one rather of necessity or temporary expediency, than of choice. Nor is it to be assumed that no efforts have been made to modify or perfect it. As early as 1790, Mr. Jefferson presented two plans to the House of Representatives, to one of which the existing denominations of weights and measures are conformed. The weights, capacity, and length measures are connected, and a scientific basis is proposed. In the other, the decimal system is introduced, the denominations are simplified, and the length measure is referred to a natural standard. Neither of Mr. Jefferson's propositions were adopted by Congress or the States.

In 1819, a committee of the House of Representatives presented a plan to conform to the weights and measures in common use. They proposed to obtain, through a commission, copies of the yard, the bushel, the wine gallon, and the pound, supposed to conform to those in common use in the United States; to preserve these standards, and distribute duplicates of them; to compare the length measure with the length of the second's pendulum, and also with that of an arc of the terrestrial meridian; to connect them by determining the weight of a certain bulk of distilled water; and to define the bushel and gallon by the weight of water which they contain.

Two years later, in 1821, Mr. Adams (then in Congress) submitted to the House of Representatives a proposition on the same subject. He recommended: 1st. "To fix the standard with the partial uniformity of which it is susceptible for the present, excluding all innovations; and 2d. To consult with foreign nations for the future and ultimate establishment of universal and permanent uniformity."

Mr. Adams' motion did not meet with favor—at least, it occasioned no action in Congress; but in view of all the circumstances of the case, and in the absence of specific legislation fixing a standard, the proper government department directed that the weights and measures employed in the custom-houses of the United States, and elsewhere in federal offices, should be made to conform to the propositions contained in the Report of the House Committee, above referred to, in 1819; and on this basis the system of American weights and measures rests. It is in effect the old English arrangement, (in operation in England before the adoption of the imperial standard,) which we have wholly borrowed, with only trifling and unimportant modifications. Congress has passed no laws declaring a standard; and it is only by tolerance that the system or arrangement exists at all.

The inquiry is often put, why, if Congress has never fixed a standard, the government should undertake to introduce a distinctive and peculiar set of weights and measures in the States, among the federal offices. The answer is, that Congress has, by legislative enactment, concurred in the action of the co-ordinate branch of the General Government, and legalized it under authority of the Constitution. Hence the original order of the Treasury Department, directing weights and measures, corrected to a uniformity, to be distributed throughout the States, has all the sanction of law.

In the pamphlet before us is contained a letter from Mr. W. W. Mann, which is descriptive of the French metrical system. We can hardly do justice to Mr. Mann's elaborate essay in a paper so brief as this is designed to be; but we cannot let the opportunity pass of compressing and extracting some portions of it

He says the system "is called metrical-decimal system: *Metrical*, because it is founded upon and derived from the metre-unit of measures of length; *decimal*, because, in all the multiples and divisions of the metre, and of the other units of the system, it is proceeded by decimals of tens—thus: tens, hundreds, thousands, tens of thousands; and tenths, hundredths, thousandths, &c."

Mr. Mann next furnishes us with a history of the metre, the basis of the whole structure. It grew out of a political necessity, consequent upon the consolidation of the French nation, and the absorption of Suzerain provinces. As each of these Suzeraincies had its system or arrangement of weights and measures, it became a matter of urgent expediency that one general standard should be devised. At the instance of the French Assembly, the Academy of Sciences was called upon to furnish a system; and the metre was chosen as the initial unit of the system. The word metre is taken from the Greek μετρον, The Academy decided that "the length of the metre should be the ten-millionth part of a quadrant of the earth's meridian, that is to say, the ten-millionth part of the distance from the equator to the pole, or one link of a chain of forty millions equal links, that would extend entirely around our globe, passing over the poles."

The meridian was selected, "not because it was in France, but because it was, in Europe, the longest arc of a meridian, the two extremes of which would rest upon the level of the sea, and within convenient distance of France." The difference between the French metre and English yard is hardly appreciable.

This difference is thus stated:—

French metre	inches	=39 $\frac{333336}{1,000,000}$	in.
English imperial yard	"	39	"
Excess of French metre over English yard, about	"	$\frac{1}{3}$	"
Or, exactly	"	$\frac{370791}{1000000}$	

Taking, therefore, the metre-unit as the initial for long measure, we come to consider its multiples and divisions.

"The nomenclature," says Mr. Mann, "has the cardinal merit of being suggestive of the thing signified. The name instantly suggests the amount and the nature of the measure. One has but to fix in his memory twelve short words, with their meaning, and the difficulty is mastered. * * * These twelve words are, in the first place, four of the ascending series, expressing the multiples or augmentations of the metre and other units. These are all derived from the Greek. They are:—

Deca,	signifying	ten.
Hecto,	"	hundred.
Kilo,	"	thousand.
Myria,	"	ten thousand.

"Next, we have three words of the descending series, expressing the divisions or diminutions of the metre and other units. They are all derived from the Latin. They are:—

Deci, signifying	tenth.
Centi, "	hundredth.
Milli, "	thousandth.

"Now prefix these seven words to the word metre, which we already know the meaning of, and we have the complete nomenclature of long measure under the French metrical system." Thus:—

The myria metre is	10,000 metres.
The kilometre is	1,000 metres.
The heclometre is	100 metres.
The decametre is	10 metres.
The metre is	1 metre.
The decimetre is	1.10 metre, or $\frac{1}{10}$ of a metre.
The centimetre is	1.100 metre, or $\frac{1}{100}$ "
The millimetre is	1.1000 metre, or $\frac{1}{1000}$ "

The reader will gather from this brief analysis a remote idea of the French system of length measure. While the principle is retained, the mode pursued in surface measure differs. The unit is called *are*, from the Latin area, and signifies, in the French system, "the superficial extent contained within a square, of which each side is ten metres in length. It is therefore ten metres square, and contains 400 square metres." The combination would be:—

The hectare =	10.000	square	metres.
The *are* "	1.00	"	"
The centiare "	1	"	metre.

The hectare is equal to $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres (English measure) of land; or, exactly, $2\frac{471143}{10000000}$ acres.

The measure of volume, or solid measure, has for its unit the *stere*, (Greek, *στερεος*.) The explanation is as follows:—

"The stere is the cube of a metre, and signifies the amount of matter contained in a mass one metre long, one metre broad, and one metre high," or in a solid body of six equal sides, like a die, of which each side is one metre square. We have, then, by the combination of words above described, the following denominations indicative of solid measure:—

The decastere, which is	10 cubic metres.
The stere, which is	1 " metre.
The decistere, which is	1.10, or $\frac{1}{10}$ of a cube metre.

The stere is equal to $35\frac{31658}{1000000}$ English cubic feet. It has other properties, as submultiples and subdivisions.

The measure of capacity, for liquid and dry bodies, has a unit, which iscalled litre, (from the Greek λιτρα.) The litre is a vessel containing the cube of the tenth part of the metre, or the cube of a decimetre. (The decimetre is one of the properties of the long measure, referred to above.) The vessel is described as square, and is, by interior measurement, one decimetre in depth, and each side measures a decimetre—in other words, "a square vessel, of which, by interior measurement, each side and the bottom are square decimetres." The combinations are as follows:—

The kilolitre, which is	....	1,000 litres.
" heclolitre, " "	....	100 "
" decalitre, " "	....	10 "
" litre, " "	....	1 litre.
" decilitre, " "	....	1.10 of a litre.
" centilitre, " "	....	1.000 " "

The litre is rather less than the English quart, being $0\frac{22097}{1000000}$ parts of the imperial gallon, or $1\frac{760773}{1000000}$ parts of a pint, or a trifling more than 1¾ pints. On this basis, with the litre as the initial, measures are designed for measuring the various kinds of bodies under this head, according to their nature.

Next we are presented with the unit for the standard of weights, which is called a gramme, (from the Greek γαμμα, a small weight.) "The gramme is the weight of the 1,000th part of a cubic decimetre of distilled water, taken at its greatest density, which occurs at the temperature of four degrees above zero of the centigrade thermometer (39° 2 Fahrenheit), and weighed in a vacuum. Take an accurately constructed litre, (which contains, as we have seen, one decimetre cube,) fill the litre with distilled water, reduced to the temperature above mentioned (+40 centigrade), and weigh it in a vacuum: the weight of that water is 1 kilogramme, or 1,000 grammes." Then follows the nomenclature of the system:—

Myriagramme =	....	10,000 grammes.
Kilogramme, "	....	1,000 "
Hectogramme, "	....	100 "
Decagramme, "	....	10 "
Gramme, "	....	1 gramme.
Decigramme, "	....	1.10 of a gramme.
Centigramme, "	....	1.100 " "
Milligramme, "	....	1.1000 " "

We have next a description of the uses of the several measures, according to this system; but these will suggest themselves to the reader—the kilogramme, for instance, in determining the tonnage of vessels, in expressing quintals, etc., and the superior and subordinate multiples and subdivisions of the gramme in fixing the ton, cwt., pound, ounce, etc.

Such, in a few words, is the decimal-metrical system of France.

It remains to connect this system with the money standard of that country; for the arrangement would not otherwise be complete. The franc is the monetary unit, having a value, corresponding with our dollar initial, of 18 cents 7 mills. All accounts are kept in francs and centimes, the pieces consisting of gold, silver, and copper, each containing a per centage of alloy. By law, the following are the denominations, weights, and solids of French metallic currency:—

GOLD.

Denomination.	*Weight.*	*Diameter.*
20 francs	6.45161 grammes	21 millimetres.
10 "	3.22580 "	17 "
5 "	1.61290 "	14 "

SILVER.

Denomination.	*Weight.*	*Diameter.*
5 francs	25 grammes	37 millimetres.
2 "	10 "	27 "
1 "	5 "	23 "
50 centimes	2½ "	18 "
20 "	1 "	15 "

COPPER.

Denomination.	*Weight.*	*Diameter.*
10 centimes	10 grammes	30 millimetres.
5 "	5 "	25 "
2 "	2 "	20 "
1 "	1 "	15 "

The franc has 9 parts of pure silver in 10, and 1 of copper. Its weight is 5 grammes with this alloy. All silver coins, multiples, and divisions of the franc weigh in exact proportion. The gold coins have the same degree of alloy as the silver, namely: 9 pure and 1 of impure metal. The alloy of the copper coins is as follows: 95 parts of copper, 4 parts of tin, and 1 of zinc=100. 3,100 francs in gold, 200 francs in silver, 10 francs in copper, weigh 1 kilogramme. We may thus perceive the combination and connection of the monetary standard with that of the weights and measures.

Mr. Mann says: "It is by decimal division and by the weight and diameter of the coins, that the connection is established between the currency of France and the metrical system of weights and measures. It was intended to make this connection more intimate and complete, by so regulating the diameter of the coins that, by placing a certain number of them in juxtaposition, touching each other, in a straight line, the metre and its various divisions might be reproduced." This can be done, thus affording, in cases of need, the various divisions of lineal measure with the coins.

Full justice has not been done to this subject, in the contracted limits of this paper; but enough has been said to show that the question of standard in France has been regulated to a system, that it is a system which commends itself for its simplicity and exactitude, and that, with slight modifications, it could with advantage be adopted throughout the United States.

Art. II.—MANUFACTURING IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

THE apathy and want of enterprise in the South, and particularly in South Carolina, must be matter of astonishment to those who are acquainted with her geography and immense resources. It appears to be the disposition of the citizens of South Carolina particularly, to follow in the footsteps of their fathers, in all the pursuits of life, and they cry "Down with all innovation upon those customs."

When we consider the immense changes which have transpired in the world within the last twenty years, and we might say, with great propriety, the last ten, superinduced by the extension of commerce, the immense production of gold, the general diffusion of the practical sciences, the ease and cheapness with which intercourse with foreign nations can be carried on, and the great *impetus* given to commerce thereby, we are annoyed by the sluggishness and indifference manifested by those who are called the men of progress and enterprise of the South.

Twenty years ago, South Carolina invested all of her surplus capital in lands and negroes, and now she invests her capital in the same way, or in banking institutions, regardless of the changed condition of the world, and the changed condition of her lands. But a few years since, the North could not manufacture without protection, and now she cannot have the impudence to ask it. The poverty of her soil, and its unfitness to produce articles for foreign consumption, drove them into the enterprise of manufacturing the great staple of the South. By the unexampled industry of that section of our Union, and the skill and ingenuity of her machinists, she can now compete successfully with Europe in manufacturing, and is now acknowledged to be, both by Southerners and foreigners, the most flourishing section of our confederacy.

As my object is to call the attention of the people of South Carolina to the manufacture of their own great staple, I make the declaration that the manufacture of cotton can be made more profitable in South Carolina than in any of the Northern States.

The resources of South Carolina are superior, if not unsurpassed, by any State in the Union. She has a great extent of sea-coast, much of the finest quality of lands, particularly the rich loamy soils lying on the sea-board, and the lowlands on her numerous water-courses. The best rice is made here, the finest article of cotton is also produced in South Carolina; her territory abounds in minerals; the richest gold mine ever discovered lies in Eatonville District, and in all probability there are many others within her borders of equal richness, for in that locality they are being discovered every day. Iron ore abounds in various portions of the State; and last, though not least, she yields the palm to no other State in the extent of her water-power, the cheapest motor by a great per cent. ever yet discovered, or possibly can be discovered. With all these unprecedented resources, the State of South Carolina is playing the sluggard over her untold wealth, employing all her labor and capital in cotton raising in competition with the fertile and generous lands of the South and the Southwest. These great resources will enable this State to support an immense population: they will act and react upon each other; the development of one will sustain and advance the development of the other.

It is evident to the most obtuse understanding that the manufacture of cotton can now be made a very profitable business in the State of South Carolina, far more so than planting. In the first place, labor is cheaper here than it is at the North, where Abbott Lawrence and many others have made their millions; second, because water power is cheaper; third, cotton in its raw state is much cheaper to the manufacturer here than at the North; fourth, the streams are never obstructed in the least degree by ice; fifth, the present cheapness of machinery in consequence of modern improvements, and competition in its manufacture; sixth, the comparative ease with which first-class manufacturing machinists can be obtained; seventh, the European exodus creating a rise in the price of labor, tending to throw the American manufacturer on an equality with the European; eighth, the threatened European war. In the above, I have stated some of the advantages likely to redound greatly to the benefit of the manufacturing interest throughout the Union, as well as others which peculiarly belong to the South and South Carolina.

If we draw a parallel between the North and the South upon this subject, we will find everything except skill in machinists and operatives offering superior advantages in the South.

In the first place, South Carolina has a decided advantage over the North, in the cheapness of her labor. This is a point I have heard stoutly contested by those ignorant of the facts of the case; by men who have never taken the pains to examine the subject. If the opponents of Southern manufacturing will only take the trouble to examine the Patent Office reports for 1851, on the agricultural and mechanical department, they will find there a true estimate of the cost of labor, both in the North and South, employed in manufacturing establishments. It will be seen by such examination that the labor employed in Northern manufacturing is at least one hundred per cent. higher than that employed in the same business in the South. According to the Patent Office reports of 1851, the average cost of labor for men in Massachusetts, employed in cotton manufacturing, is $22 90 per month, and for females, $13 60, making an aggregate of $46 50. The cost of labor in the manufactories of South Carolina, according to the same report, is, for men, $13 94; for females, $8 30; thus making an aggregate of $22 24. According to this statement, South Carolina has a clear gain over Massachusetts of more than one hundred per cent. in the cost of labor necessary to carry on her manufactories, the most expensive department connected with this branch of industry; yet Massachusetts has 213 manufacturing establishments, and a capital invested of $28,445,650, and increasing it every day on account of the vast profits they are realizing. South Carolina, on the other hand, has only eighteen establishments, and a capital of $857,200. After examining the above statistics, we are amazed at the ignorance and apathy betrayed by the South, particularly by South Carolina, in her want of enterprise in this department of industry.

In the next place, the water-power of South Carolina is equal, if not superior, to any of the New-England States; all of her streams have their sources in the Blue Ridge Mountains, and rush over, shoal after shoal, through all the upper districts, down to the midland districts of the State. Many of them are large streams, such as the Broad River, Saluda, Catawba, and furnish large volumes of water; and as the falls are produced by these streams pouring over beds of granite, it follows that there is an abundance of building material convenient for erecting permanent manufacturing buildings. Water-power, beyond all question, is the cheapest motive power that can possibly be applied to machinery; it is as free and almost as constant as air, and in the State of South Carolina almost as cheap as air; for even her finest falls have never been looked upon as at all valuable until recently, and at a mere nominal value in comparison with those of the North, far inferior to them in power and facilities. Falls now in South Carolina on her largest streams, of unsurpassed beauty and power, upon the banks of which I might say, and say truthfully, that from twenty-five to fifty factories might be erected with but little more labor and expense each than the first, can be bought by paying the ordinary price per acre for the land in the vicinity. Perhaps where, in some instances, the falls are exceedingly fine, the owner may ask a small premium upon his land in consideration of this fact, which small value has been produced by having erected at the shoals an inferior set of grist, flouring and saw mills, which yield a very small profit to the owner from the custom he receives from the surrounding neighborhood. These shoals are destined to become exceedingly valuable at no distant day, perhaps within eight or ten years, or even less than that, provided the attention of the people of South Carolina can be turned from the all-absorbing pursuit of making cotton to manufacturing a branch of industry equally as important, and, in my humble judgment, infinitely more profitable, thereby securing to ourselves the enormous wealth we annually pour into the lap of foreign nations, retaining the population already in the State, and bringing within our borders, from all parts of the world, energy, enterprise, and genius. We confidently believe that near the great falls on the largest rivers, which are not far from the centre of the State of South Carolina, that large manufacturing cities are destined, soon destined, to spring up, rivalling the Lowells and Lawrences of Massachusetts, diffusing wealth, refinement, and comfort amongst thousands who otherwise would have remained in ignorance and sloth; for not thirty-five years ago, Mr. Jackson laid the corner-stone of the flourishing city of Lowell, by erecting there the first manufactory, almost in a wilderness; it rose at once to the dimensions of a city, and now has a population of fifty thousand inhabitants, as large as the city of Charleston. He commenced this enterprise under auspices far more unfavorable than can possibly exist now in South Carolina. The city of Lawrence, on the same river, is also rising rapidly in wealth and population; in fact, every stream in Massachusetts is studded with villages and hamlets, produced by the talismanic effects of manufacturing. Her water-power, at this day, is worth millions in Massachusetts, and a large proportion of the capital invested in manufacturing establishments must first be expended in the purchase of this invaluable motor. It would not be extravagant to say that one half of it is laid out in its purchase. Now what is the fact in South Carolina? Her best power, as I have before stated, is worth, or will sell for, absolutely nothing; the only price asked is a fair and ordinary price per acre for the land connected with the falls. The capitalist, therefore, embarking in the manufacturing business in South Carolina, will be at little expense comparatively in purchasing a site for his mills, and when in operation, paying but half the price for labor that is paid at the North, which would give South Carolina overwhelming advantages over any portion of the North.

Another strong argument, appealing to the people of South Carolina to embark in manufacturing enterprises at present, is, that her best lands are now cut down and pretty much exhausted, and therefore cotton-growing cannot be made as profitable a business as it formerly was. Her people have now to compete with the South and Southwest, which has brought into cultivation recently so much of the rich and virgin lands of that section of the Union. The necessary consequence of this fact is, that in a short time the best lands in the State, the river lands, will alone be used for the purposes of growing cotton, and the great mass of our slaves will find their way further South and West. This assuredly will be the case, unless we find for a large portion of them a more profitable employment than cotton-growing can be in the space of a very few years. Where, then, can this employment be found? It can be found in manufacturing establishments. South Carolina can become in a few years the manufacturer of the South and West. She might make large profits by simply converting the raw material into yarns, and shipping them to foreign ports. The argument for this is, that many of the large manufacturing establishments of Europe confine themselves to the labor of converting the raw material into yarns, and selling to other establishments to be woven into cloths. It can be converted into yarns at a very moderate expense, and commands readily a profit over cotton in a raw state of nearly a hundred per cent. This kind of manufacturing does not require as much skill in the operation, and is better suited on this account to the inferior capacity of our slaves. Skilful machinists are not required at high wages, and the cost for machinery is much less; but it is not proposed to confine this species of labor to the slave, though his labor will be valuable in this department of industry, but there is a large population in the State in humble circumstances to whom the introduction of manufacturing would be the greatest of blessings, particularly to indigent females. The labor of the inhabitant of the poor pine lands in the lower part of the State, and the poor lands of the middle districts, and the tract of country bordering on the mountains and in the mountains, can be procured for manufacturing purposes at as low rates as that of the slave. Illustrative of this, the Graniteville Factory is worked altogether by white operatives, procured in the neighboring pine hills, in preference to the employment of slave labor; so that labor, whether it be free or slave, is a matter of choice to the manufacturer in South Carolina.

Another great inducement to South Carolina to engage in manufacturing at the present time is, that railroads are penetrating every section of the State. There are three lines of railroads running through the upper country, passing near the largest and best falls on her largest rivers. The Columbia and Charlotte road passes within twenty miles of the fine shoals on the Catawba, near Land's Ford. The Columbia and Greenville Railroad passes up the Broad River for some miles, and thence on to Greenville, crossing the Saluda. The Union and Spartanburg Railroad connects with the Columbia and Greenville Railroad at the point where it leaves the Broad River, and runs up this fine stream for twenty or twenty-five miles, in the vicinity of some magnificent falls on that river, around which a canal has been cut. One of the public works of the State thus giving every facility, so far as relates to transportation, in tending to advance manufacturing interests in this section of the State.

We hardly deem it necessary to call attention to the fact, that the raw material can be obtained in the South, in those sections best adapted to manufacturing, for at least two cents upon the pound less than it can be laid down at factories at the North. In this, therefore, there is a clear saving to the South of at least 20 per cent., at the present prices of the staple. We regard this as a fact self-evident to every mind.

Again, the streams of the South are never obstructed in the least degree by ice. It is true, that this is not a great drawback to the factories of the North, yet it must be to some extent an inconvenience.

The machinery of a cotton factory is now much cheaper than it formerly was. Great improvements have been made upon it by American and European artisans within a short period. It is now manufactured at the North extensively on the very best models, and the competition in this trade has brought machinery down to a low figure compared with prices some years since.

There is no difficulty now in obtaining first-class machinists, which was formerly the case. The North has entered so largely into cotton manufacturing recently, that large numbers of operatives have become masters of this branch of business, who can be procured for a slight advance over the wages they get at the North. The strikes which are now going on in England for higher wages in the factories, will induce many of the most enterprising to seek employment on our continent. At this time skilful machinists can more easily be obtained than at any former period.

If there be a general European war, and there appears to be no preventive as matters now stand in Europe, the manufacturing interest must languish there. The immense amount of capital that will be drawn out of the regular channels of trade, to carry on a gigantic war, such an one as it assuredly will be, if France and England get fairly into it, will give the manufacturing interest of England a serious blow. The supplies of breadstuffs being cut off from England and France, hitherto furnished by Russia principally, and other European States, will raise them vastly in price, which is even now the case, and will continue to keep them up. This will also draw capital from all the ordinary channels of trade and industry, manufacturing amongst the rest; and will increase the price of the operatives' labor. Hence will ensue strikes for higher wages, and the closing and the failing of manufacturing establishments in England, and perhaps the rest of Europe. Whatever retards the cotton manufacturing interest in England, advances that of the United States, when the causes are European in their origin. The manufacturing for the world must be done somewhere, and when the leading manufacturing nation of the world, therefore, becomes embarrassed, the benefit must redound to her most successful rival, which is the United States.

There is more encouragement at present for the South to engage in manufacturing than at any previous period. The times have changed greatly, since the present manufacturing establishments and enterprises in South Carolina were put into operation—I speak of those enterprises known in the State and the United States—the old Saluda Company, near Columbia, and the factory at the beautiful little village of Graniteville, which has risen around the factory in the pine hills near Aiken. The latter is making a handsome profit. We have now a great annual production of gold, both in California and Australia, which has enhanced the prices of all productions and all fabrics, and given an unprecedented impetus to commerce. We have the free trade doctrines of England—the spread of commerce, and its rapidly extending range, reaching around and around the world, visiting every nation, and opening the ports of every country. These things have revolutionized, and will continue to revolutionize the world, with unexampled rapidity. It is by the powerful agency of steam that the world is being drawn together, and every nation is becoming familiar with the government and laws of all other nations, and the barbarous becoming civilized. The transit of oceans and seas is now of little more moment than the passage of rivers, bays, straits, and channels were a few years ago.

The revolution of China is progressing rapidly, and soon her time-honored rule and her musty walls will have fallen forever, and the old Chinese Government, with its lowering superstitions, will topple, never to rise again, superseded by a government of progress, and worthy of the nineteenth century, giving light and life to a nation containing nearly half the population of the world, and which has been buried in barbarism for more than twenty centuries.

The dispatches received by the President of the United States from Commodore Perry, commanding the Japan Expedition, give a most flattering account of his negotiations with that hitherto sealed empire. If the ports both of China and Japan be thrown open to our commerce, the cotton-fields and the manufacturing facilities of a portion of the South will be sources of untold wealth to that section of the confederacy.

Her easy transit of oceans and seas is a very significant and powerful argument for South Carolina, and all other portions of the South suited for manufacturing, to engage in the business of manufacturing cotton. The effect of this will be, that labor in Europe will rapidly enhance in price, on account of the diminution of her population, seeking more favored countries. The emigration from Great Britain and Germany to the United States has been enormous for the last few years. And this state of things will continue, with a large increase each succeeding year. For, in the same proportion as the inhabitants of Europe become acquainted with our government and institutions, and the facility for crossing the Atlantic increases, to that degree will they flock to our shores, until labor will bring as high wages in England as the United States. The emigration to Australia and the United States had the effect of raising the price of labor in England last year. Every rise in the price of English labor, England being the greatest manufacturing nation in the world, improves the prospects of the United States as a manufacturing country, as well as a producing one. If this state of things continue, and we see nothing to prevent its indefinite continuance, the United States must soon do the whole cotton manufacturing of the world.

The South, the genial South, with her ever-running streams, the raw material at her door—the cheapest labor in the Union, and an abundance of water-power, the cheapest of all motors, will become the centre of cotton manufacturing for the globe.

Art. III.—GUANO—ITS HISTORY AND ITS USES.

THE English Admiral, Moresby, has recently undertaken an estimate of the guano deposits on the Chincha Islands, and values the amassed stock at 8,600,000 tons; an amount which, for the present demand, would scarcely suffice for longer than eight or nine years. Some time ago, it was asserted that the layers exceeded more than 50,000,000 tons; and a semi-official article in the "Journal of Lima" gave, in January, 1852, the following statement:—18,250,000 tons on the Chincha Islands; 854,086 tons on the Gobos Islands; 7,921,407 tons on Chipana, &c.

The estimate of Admiral Moresby has given rise to great apprehensions regarding the future supply, which have been only diminished by the hope of the discoveries of new deposits. The English Government has encouraged the spirit of private enterprise, by putting premiums on new guano discoveries; and has also enjoined investigations upon its squadron in the South Seas. A speedy success would be the more desirable, as it would render Peru unnecessary, and punish her for the monopoly she has appropriated to herself for so long time, to the disadvantage of the consumers. Guano of a good quality is only to be obtained from islands and bays visited by ichsyophagistic birds, and where rains are unfrequent. The guano from the arid districts of Peru could not, by the competition of the guano from the coasts of Patagonia, from the south coast of Africa, and from the islands and cliffs of Australia, be lowered in price; as all those countries have more or less rain, which deprives the guano of the most important ingredient—ammoniac. One of the better deposits on the Ichabol Islands, near the coast of Africa, was exhausted in two years. The Peruvian Government finds itself, therefore, in almost unbounded possession of a manure, the price of which is defined by the degree of usefulness; but will for the present time be granted, in many cases, perhaps, without an exact knowledge of the real value, in order to serve for trials. The Peruvian Government has therefore already, for some time, and, as it is supposed, for a considerable amount of money, transferred to Messrs. Gibbs & Co., of Liverpool, a monopoly of the traffic of this article. The price seems, to the English agriculturists, to be not in proportion to the value of the manure, as is shown in the imports; which were, in the eleven months ending the 5th Dec., 1851, 205,804 tons; 1852, 118,604; 1853, 97,578 tons. This diminution may have its causes very likely in the fact that, in the year 1851, a greater quantity of spurious guano, and for a cheaper price, was brought to England; and that the high price of the Peruvian guano gave rise to many other forgeries, which caused the guano to appear often of less utility as a fertilizer than it really possesses. Lord Clarendon has recently assured a deputation of the Royal Agricultural Society, which desired to enter into the guano traffic, of the negotiations with the Peruvian Government; but at the same time mentioned, that nitrate of soda from Mexico, and the many thousand tons of fishes which yearly in Newfoundland are thrown away, could easily replace the guano.

The subject of guano is now receiving the attention of Congress, upon the memorials of various agricultural associations and conventions. The American Minister to Peru, Mr. Clay, has thus written to the government:—

> I need scarcely assure you that, during my residence in Peru, my serious attention has been turned to this subject, and that I have neglected no opportunity to impress upon this government the importance of furnishing guano to the agriculturists of the United States at a lower price than it is now sold, and that its agents should keep on hand a quantity sufficient to supply the increasing demands of the community.

The fact is, that, as the Peruvian Government relies entirely upon the amount produced by the sale of its guano in the United States and Great Britain to pay the interest upon the national debt, it is a delicate subject to touch upon, and on which to offer suggestions, and I have always found it necessary to approach it with caution; for, as the Peruvian nation is the owner of the deposits, the diplomatic agent who represents to its government the necessity of a reduction in the price at which it is sold, risks being met at the threshold by the intimation, that the possessor of an article of trade has the undoubted right to dispose of it as he may think proper. The feeling on the part of this government is, that the manner of disposing of the guano and the price at which it is sold are considerations which belong entirely and exclusively to the Peruvian nation, and are not subject-matter of negotiation with foreign powers.

Under the present system of contracting with mercantile houses for the sale of guano, the government can obtain an advance of money at any time it may be required, without the trouble of negotiating a loan in the manner adopted by other nations. This is found to be very convenient, as the government applies to the consignees for the sum it needs, the agents furnish the money, and render a semi-annual account of their sales and advances to the treasury, when they are not exposed to public scrutiny, as they would be in the United States. * * * * * *

We append some remarks upon the uses of guano as a fertilizer, based upon the experiments of D. J. McCord, an intelligent planter of South Carolina:—

Langsyne, *March* 22, 1853.

My Dear Sir:—In the winter I reside entirely on the plantation here, and my post-office is Fort Mott. Your letter, being directed to Columbia, was not forwarded to me until yesterday. I fear now that my answer will reach you too late, especially if you wish to apply guano to your corn. For many hereabouts have planted, or nearly done. I am not half done. But to begin with my answer.

For two years I mixed four bushels of dry sand with one bushel of guano. This year, to save trouble, I will mix two bushels of sand to one of guano. Fine charcoal, taken from the rail-road, a blacksmith shop, or coal kiln, is excellent, because, like gypsum, it will retain the ammonia—any dry, fine dirt will do as well as sand. My object for mixing is to increase the quantity to be put down more accurately by dull and careless hands.

My mode of mixing is this. I take for the purpose some dry shed—free from the wind is better, for it may mix and blow away much of it. I then take a coarse iron sieve and sift a layer of sand, and on that a layer of guano, until I get it all mixed for the field. If the sand or earth is damp, it will cause evaporation and loss. When thus prepared, you may put it into the ground just before you plant, or a month before. If put under the seed of corn or cotton, it should be covered by the plough or hoe, two, three, or four inches, so that when you put the seed in the ground over it, there may be two, or three, or four inches between the seed and guano; for if they come in contact it will kill the seed; but by the time the roots reach it, it will be diffused in the soil, and nourish and not destroy it.

I have only once tried it on an acre of corn. It was a very unfavorable year for corn, being dry. I put a tablespoonful (not heaping) of guano in each hill, and covered it with fresh earth, and the corn was then covered about two inches. The adjoining acre was manured as usual with stable manure and cotton seed mixed.

The acre manured with stable manure and cotton seed was seven or eight inches high, while that manured with guano was so small and so wretched that I had some idea of cutting it up and replanting them. It rained, and in one week afterwards the guanoed corn was as large as the other, and soon became larger, and with much stouter stalks, and continued much the largest, yielding much better fodder; but the produce of corn was about the same, each acre producing between sixteen and seventeen bushels. I planted in five-feet rows the stalks two feet apart. A tablespoonful a hill will take from 180 to 200 lbs. But if I were intending to use guano on corn, I would not put the guano to it until it was up, and at the first ploughing run a bull tongue near the corn, and sprinkle the guano opposite the corn—a tablespoonful on each side might do, or half a tablespoonful on each side. It must be followed by another plough, and covered immediately. I have heard of much less doing. I have never made any other experiment with corn.

A bushel of guano weighs 58 lbs.

Now for cotton.

On cotton, I have used guano for three years.

The first year my experiment was a small one, but clearly showed the importance of guano.

In 1851, I matured twenty acres old worn-out red lands with two hundred pounds guano to the acre. It yielded:

1st Picking	900	lbs.
2d "	1,700	"
3d "	4,995	"
4th "	4,053	"
5th "	76	"
	11,724	lbs.

Average per acre, 616½ lbs.

One acre adjoining, same quality exactly, unmanured, yielded:

1st Picking	00	lbs.
2d "	00	"
3d "	60	"
4th "	108	"
5th "	76	"
	244	lbs.

Difference per acre in favor of guano, 372½.

In 1852, I manured 36 acres with 180 lbs. per acre. It produced 31,540 lbs. seed cotton, or 875 lbs. to the acre. More than half of the land was very old, sandy land, never manured; the rest inferior old red land. Of the adjoining acres unmanured, my overseer by mistake did not keep the weights; but I do not believe that it averaged 450 lbs. At that rate, the difference was 426 lbs. per acre.

For 1853, I intend to manure 34 acres with 174 lbs., which is 3 bushels of guano, and 10 acres with 100 lbs. to the acre. I am told that quantity produces well, and perhaps, pays best, costing so much less. One of my neighbors last year used 1 bushel (58 lbs.) per acre. He kept no account of weights. His overseer told me that he thought it produced more than twice as much as that not manured.

Now for my mode of putting down.

My acres are 42 compasses square—60 rows to the acre.

To put down 174 lbs. to the acre requires 3 bushels guano; and if 2 bushels of sand or dirt are put to each bushel of guano, it will take of the mixture 4 quarts, 1 pint, and 1 gill to each row.

To put down 100 lbs. to the acre of the same mixture requires 2 bushels of guano, (less 1 gallon,) and takes 3 quarts of the mixture to the row.

If you mix 4 bushels of sand to 1 of guano—

17½ bushels of mixture will give 200 lbs. to the acre.
15½ bushels of mixture will give 180 lbs. to the acre.
15 bushels of mixture will give 174 lbs. to the acre.
13½ bushels of mixture will give 150 lbs. to the acre.

So you must make your calculation in proportion to the material you mix with the guano, and divide by the number of rows in your acre.

Let each hand have a small box to hold the quantity measured out of the bags for each row, and take care that it hold out as even as it can be put. They soon learn, after trying one or two rows.

You must not attempt to put it down in windy weather, or it will be blown away. Take out what you want for the day only, in bags, to keep from wind, and covered if rain should come, for it would be injured by getting wet, before covered in the ground. I forgot to say why you should sift it. In the first place, you mix it better by so doing; and besides, the guano has many lumps, and by sifting you get them out, and should break them in a mortar or trough, so as to mix it with the earth, otherwise these lumps would burn up everything.

I believe I have told you all I know. Gypsum is said to be excellent for mixing with the guano; and no doubt it would be so, as it would retain the ammonia.

This year I bought guano in New-York. It cost me, delivered here at Fort Mott, $50 for 2000 lbs. If many planters would unite and take a large quantity, it can be got still cheaper. By the new charter to the rail-road to Columbia, they can only charge 12½ cents per 100 lbs.

The fullest account that I have seen of the methods of using guano is an "Essay on Guano, by J. E. Teschemacher, Boston, 1845." It was distributed some years since, to those who bought guano, gratis. It was published by A. D. Phelps, 124 Washington Street, Boston, from whom, perhaps, it can be had; and by Saxton and Huntington, 295 Broadway, New-York.

I have been amused with some of the modes I have seen recommended by knowing ones in the newspapers, viz.: rubbing the cotton seed with it, &c. It killed the seeds wherever it touched it, the first year I used it; and my gardener, not regarding my cautions, burnt up everything.

Let me know how you succeeded with your guano. I hope you will receive this in time.

* * *

Art. IV.—YELLOW FEVER IN NEW-ORLEANS.

Dr. McFarlane, of New-Orleans, in reply to the strictures of Dr. Ely, in the Review, upon his theory of Yellow Fever, has forwarded us a very long and able manuscript. As many of its parts are more adapted to a medical journal, and others again are calculated to perpetuate a *personal* contest between the parties, we have concluded to insert such portions only as will set forth the author's theory in an intelligible manner, and vindicate him from popular misunderstanding. Dr. McFarlane has been for thirty years a physician of New-Orleans, and should therefore be heard with great respect upon such a subject.

As to my opinion, that filth, offal, and the like, will not create *yellow fever*, I am prepared to maintain it by all the circumstances under which that disease has ever occurred, and by all the records of history; and judged by those standards, I defy contradiction.

The immense morass or swamp, forty or fifty miles in extent, which forms the rear of New-Orleans, lying as it does below the level of the city, which forms an inclined plane from the Mississippi River, of course receives the *debris* and drainage of the whole city. This swamp is generally covered with water, containing every soluble portion of the filth of New-Orleans—but these agents are, to a great extent, rendered innocuous by the densely crowded and venerable cypress trees which cover it, and which, with their impervious drapery of moss, effectually protect them from the rays of the sun.

Immense, but of course fruitless, efforts have been made for eighteen or twenty years, to drain it by extensive machinery, but every deluging shower of rain inundates it anew, and of course the work has to be done over again—and over again, continually; thus its deadly contents are constantly kept in a state the most deleterious, viz., perpetual humidity. Still this unintermitted absurdity has done but little harm, because, although the protecting influence of the water is constantly being withdrawn, yet the dense foliage of the trees preserves our citizens from the deadly and pestilential malaria which would assuredly be developed from a morass of fifty miles in extent, with an incumbent deposit of decomposable vegetable matter, the accumulation of a hundred years. If the trees were to be removed, so as to expose by drainage these fearful elements to the influence of alternate deluging rains and burning solar heat, then might we anticipate the endless and universal presence of intermittent, remittent, lake, swamp, typhoid, and congestive fevers, all of which diseases are produced by the combined influence of heat, moisture, and vegetable decomposition. But we would have no yellow fever, unless the swamp were covered with water.

New-Orleans was always proverbially free from the above-mentioned diseases of miasmatic origin, until about six years since, when the draining experiment was carried a little further.

A few acres between the canals which lead to Lake Pontchartrain through the swamp were thoughtlessly and hastily exposed—the trees were rapidly removed, and the draining machines, drawing off the water, which, after each shower, was replaced by the filthy drainage of the city, which constantly saturated the vegetable matter throughout the swamp, and which being immediately succeeded by the burning heat of the sun, caused the whole exposed surface of the swamp absolutely to reek and fester, and throw out such pestilential exhalations that the whole neighborhood was overwhelmed with intermittent, remittent, and swamp fevers, sometimes of a most virulent and congestive type, ushered in by *coma*, and terminating in acute abscesses of the spleen and liver, but more frequently terminating in chronic diseases of those organs—a living death, which would render a fatal attack of yellow fever a blessing.

This disease proceeded gradually from the neighborhood of the swamp, diminishing in virulence, however, until it was met with by physicians, a mild intermittent, in the vicinity of the river, throughout the city.

During the aforesaid *six years*, we had no yellow fever in New-Orleans—but during the past summer, the incessant rains, the frequent interruption of the draining machines, together with their inadequacy to free the swamp from water, even when constantly employed, acted as a protection from solar heat, and prevented exhalation, and consequently intermittents, remittents, &c., disappeared, and yellow fever established his dread empire over our devoted city. Let it be remembered, that these terrible events succeeded the exposure of a comparatively small and trivial portion of the swamp.

Now I ask, whether it becomes a thinking and ratiocinative being to close his eyes to the extraordinary coincidence which I have described above; and, although I take some blame to myself for having hastily presented my proposition, that filth, offal and vegetable decomposition might act as a preventive, and, to a certain extent, operate as a protection from yellow fever; yet my self-condemnation does not arise from the doctrines I proclaimed, but from my not having been sufficiently explicit in presenting them.

Contemplating the swamp as the reservoir of every soluble portion of the animal and vegetable filth, offal and deposit of the city—for no man in his senses can imagine, that the ten thousand times washed and purified silicious or argillacious soil beneath our feet could produce disease, and as holy writ declares, that afflictions spring not from the dust—I, with the lights of science to direct me, feel emboldened to go a step further, and say, that they spring not from mud, ten thousand times levigated, washed and filtered, like that of the streets of New-Orleans, and which does not contain one particle of soluble matter. But during the past *six years*, the soluble percolations were conveyed into the exposed swamp, and there brought into contact with the decomposable matter which has been so long accumulating; and altogether acted upon by a burning sun, and what did we see? Yellow fever? No—for six years we had no yellow fever—but instead, we had intermittents, remittents, swamp and congestive fevers.

What is there repugnant to science or to reason, in believing that the artificial and miasmatic atmosphere, which had been superinduced by the causes and processes above described, had acted as a preventive, during those six years, to the periodical attacks of yellow fever; and what extravagance could there be in describing the foul drainage and percolations, vegetable and animal, of the city of New-Orleans, when combined with the perishable deposit of the swamp, and as filth and offal, and declaring it as my opinion, that to a certain extent we *might* be protected from yellow fever by an atmosphere teeming with their exhalations?

Such were my opinions *then*, and such are my solemn convictions *now*; and as such I fearlessly proclaimed them *then*, and reiterate them *now*.

What did our wise Board of Health, who shuddered at my horrible heresies, intend to accomplish, when burning tar barrels cast a lurid gloom throughout our atmosphere, and made our city resemble one vast Pandemonium? What was their object, when, with the bellowing thunders of their cannon, they caused New-Orleans to present the horrible aspect of a sacked and devastated city, and which, by its fatal effects on the sick, almost emulated the dire consequences of such a visitation? What were the perpetual recommendations to employ disinfecting agents, (as they were called), throughout the apartments of our houses—what were all these means intended for, or what are they ever used for, but in the hope to create an artificial atmosphere, and thereby to neutralize the specific one, on which the spread of an epidemic disease is supposed to depend?*

And if I believed and thought proper to proclaim my opinion, that still

---

* The same ridiculous but destructive process was adopted by the Board of Health during the cholera of 1832, when it was estimated that several hundred victims perished untimely during the cannonade, terrified to death by the thunders of artillery and the noise of fractured glass, the windows having been broken throughout half the city.

The fact is, that Boards of Health, as heretofore constituted, are an essential imposture—a sublime juggle, whose very title, daily paraded at the head of an array of disease and death, is so supremely ridiculous.

The only Board of Health which any city requires is one qualified, experienced, and intelligent physician, of sound judgment and well balanced mind, who shall be clothed only with advisory powers, and reporting periodically to the city government, who will be accountable, in character and reputation, for the advice he gives or the suggestions he offers.

Wool Trade

another omnipresent agent, *viz.*, *malaria*, might exercise an influence in the creation of an atmosphere antagonistic to that on which epidemic yellow fever depended from the exhalations of the swamp around and about us, an opinion which had been fully borne out by the experience of the last *six years*, why should I be denounced by all the world out of New-Orleans—that is, all who know nothing at all about the matter?

Art. V.—WOOL AND THE WOOLLEN TRADE.

THE annexed statistics of the wool manufacture and wool product of the United States are taken from the returns of the census of 1850. We append to them a paper upon the woollen trade of Great Britain.*

STATES.	Capital invested.	Lbs. of wool used.	Number of hands employed. Males.	Number of hands employed. Females.	Value of entire products.	Wool produced. Lbs. of.
Maine	$467,600	1,438,434	310	314	$753,300	1,364,034
New-Hampshire	2,437,700	3,604,163	926	1,201	2,127,745	1,108,476
Vermont	886,300	2,328 100	683	710	1,579,161	3,400,717
Massachusetts	9,089,342	22,229,952	6,167	4,963	12,770,565	585,136
Rhode Island	1,013,000	4,103,370	987	771	2,381,825	129,692
Connecticut	3,773,950	9,414,100	2,907	2,581	6,465,216	497,454
New-York	4,459,370	12,538,786	4,262	2,412	7,030,604	10,071,301
New-Jersey	494,274	1,510,289	411	487	1,164,446	375,396
Pennsylvania	3,005,064	7,560 379	3,490	2,236	5,321,866	4,481,570
Delaware	148,500	393,000	122	18	251,010	57,768
Maryland	244,000	430,300	262	100	295,140	477,438
Virginia	392,640	1,554,110	478	190	841,013	2,860,765
North Carolina	18,000	30,000	15	15	23,750	970,783
South Carolina	—	—	—	—	—	487,233
Georgia	68,000	153,816	40	38	88,750	990,019
Florida	—	—	—	—	—	23,247
Alabama	—	—	—	—	—	657,118
Mississippi	—	—	—	—	—	559,619
Louisiana	—	—	—	—	—	109,897
Texas	8,000	30,000	4	4	15,000	131,917
Arkansas	—	—	—	—	—	182,595
Tennessee	10,900	6,200	15	2	6.310	1,364,378
Kentucky	249,820	673,906	256	62	318,819	2,297,433
Ohio	870,220	1,657,726	903	298	1,111,027	10,196,371
Michigan	94,000	162.250	78	51	90,242	2,043,283
Indiana	171,545	413,350	169	57	205,802	2,610,287
Illinois	154,500	396,964	124	54	206,572	2,150,113
Missouri	20,000	80,000	15	10	56,000	1,627,164
Iowa	10,000	14.500	7	—	13,000	373,898
Wisconsin	31,225	134,200	25	—	87,992	253,963
California	—	—	—	—	—	5,520
District of Columbia	700	5,000	2	—	2,400	525
Minnesota New-Mexico Oregon Utah	—	—	—	—	—	71,894
Total	$28,118,650	70,862,829	22,678	16,574	$43,207,555	52,516,959

Wool stands next to cotton amongst the raw materials used in the manufacturing districts of Great Britain.

As about five gallons of oil are used for every pack of wool by the manufacturers, to say nothing of soap, dyes, &c., and the consumption, last year, of British grown and foreign wool may

---

* From *London Merchants' Magazine*.

Wool Trade

be fairly stated at 841,622 packs, it follows that 12,750 tons of oil, of some kind, olive or rape, were required, which, taken at £50 per ton, would give a value of £637,500 for the oil used. At least 70,000 tons of shipping are also annually employed in bringing us the raw material of wool from abroad. The supplies of Cape, Australian, and Continental wools, come almost exclusively to London, whilst those chiefly brought to Liverpool are the South American, East Indian, Portuguese, North American and Mediterranean.

Relatively to the other great staple manufacture of the country, (cotton,) the total value of the woollen manufactures stands at about 3 to 5, the cotton manufactures being valued by competent authority in Manchester at £50,000,000 sterling per annum. Regarding, however, the value of each manufacture, in proportion as that value arises from the use of British labor and capital, the difference is not so great as those figures indicate. In the cotton manufacture, £20,000,000 are paid for the raw material, produced, in great measure, in foreign countries, leaving £30,000,000 only as the wages and profits of British industry applied in its fabrication. The woollen manufacture includes £11,958,328 paid for British and Colonial raw material, and £17,374,999 paid for wages and profits of British manufacturing industry, together nearly £30,000,000; so that as far as the two manufactures are to be considered as British produce, cotton would stand to wool as 30 does to 29.

The value of all kinds of woollens, worsteds, worsted hosiery, and woollen and worsted yarn, exported from Great Britain in 1830, was estimated at £4,728,666; in 1840, at £5,327,853; in 1844, it reached £8,204,836, and was about the same amount in 1850; but in 1852 it had increased to £10,145,578.

The progress of our manufacturing art in the woollen and worsted trades has (speaking generally) doubled the production of wool in Great Britain in proportion to population.

The woollen and worsted manufactures form more than one-fourth part of our textile manufactures.

Betwixt one-fourth and one-fifth of the supply of the raw material for the worsted and woollen manufactures is of foreign or colonial growth. At the past rate of increase, in a quarter of a century more at the furthest, one-half the supply will be foreign and colonial.

In 1844, Mr. McCulloch made a rough estimate that the value of woollen and worsted goods made in the United Kingdom averaged about £24,000,000; that about two-fifths of that sum were paid in wages, and that about 350,000 persons were directly employed in it. In 1851, the quantity of wool used was 325 million pounds, the value of the manufacture over £30,000,000 sterling, and the persons directly or indirectly dependent on the manufacture were computed at one million and a half. But it is admitted that the data for forming such estimates are insufficient.

The classification of wools coming into the market are AUSTRALIAN descriptions, arranged under "combing," clothing," "lambs," "skin," "pieces and locks," and "grease." SOUTH AMERICAN are divided into "merino," "mestizo," "common," and "Cordova," which are received in the condition of "washed and free from burr," "washed and burry," or "unwashed." Peruvian and Chilian, "washed," or "unwashed." Alpaca, "white," or "colored." New-Zealand fleeces are either "washed" or "unwashed." Spanish and Portuguese are classed into three grades, distinguished respectively by the letters "R," "F. and S," and "A." East Indian qualities, as known to the trade, are "first white," "second ditto," and "coarse;" "first yellow," "second ditto," and "coarse," "gray and burry." The Mediterranean wools are the Italian, Egyptian, Mogador, Tunis, Vidino and Scopia, Bosnia and Servia, Scutari and Scopia, Grecian, Syrian, and Smyrna, which are "white," "yellow," or "gray," "washed," or "unwashed." Russian consists of "merino" and "common," with a few subdivisions. Scotch of "laid," "Cheviot," "white ditto," "Highland," and "cross."

The quantity of Australian wool used in England far exceeds that of all the other "merino" kinds collectively.

Briefly, the countries besides Australia producing merino, or fine wool used for broadcloths, shawls, merinos, and other superior articles, are various parts of Europe, the United States of America, the Cape of Good Hope, and the borders of the River Plate. Our supplies of "common," "low," or inferior kinds for blankets, ordinary flannels, baize, carpets, &c., are derived from Great Britain, different parts of Europe, South America, North Africa, Turkey, and the East Indies. The United States and France are now importers. In Germany, Central Europe, and Spain, a large local consumption has also sprung up, and they send us much less wool than formerly.

The Buenos Ayres wools are generally imported unwashed, very dirty and burry. The fine wastes from 60 to 70 lbs. to the 100 lbs. in washing and burring. The total average annual exports of wool from Buenos Ayres, in the six years ending 1853, were 13½ to 14 million pounds. Of this quantity about 3,000,000 lbs. come to England, 2,000,000 lbs. go to France, and 6,000,000 to 8,000,000 lbs. are shipped to the United States. Our imports fluctuate annually, but arrive principally at Liverpool to the extent of about 3,000 bales.

The fibre of the native wool of Buenos Ayres is much like that of the common United States wool, but perhaps not quite so soft; the fibre has a spiral curl about it, which distinguishes

Wool trade

it from hairy wool; it takes color well, is generally dirty and burry when imported; wastes from 40 to 50 per cent. in washing, and from 10 to 15 per cent. in burring. Rio Grande wools, and Monte Video wools, from the River Plate, are about the same quality, generally imported burry and washed. They waste in rewashing and burring from 30 to 35 per cent. Cordova wool is grown about 700 miles back from Buenos Ayres, in a mountainous country. It is generally imported unwashed, wastes about 50 per cent. in coming to the cards, and is probably the best long wool imported from South America.

The Chilian, or Valparaiso, is a long, coarse, hairy wool, imported free from burr, and dirty; wastes about 50 per cent. before it comes to the cards, and is manufactured into the coarsest and cheapest goods. The coarser part of the fleece is often from 14 to 18 inches long, resembling much the hair on the extremity of cattle's tails, and is very different from the wool grown on the opposite side of the Andes, and the vast pampas between them and the Atlantic.

The Peruvian wool is long, coarse, and hairy. It is imported unwashed, and wastes about 50 per cent. in coming to the cards. It is used for the same purposes as the Chilian.

The African and Syrian wools have a general resemblance to each other. They are of a reddish color, occasioned by the sands of the deserts being blown into them. They are coarse, harsh, and hairy, and are spoken of in Prices Current as Syrian, Mogador, and Barbary wools.

The Scotch black-faced laid wools are largely produced in the Highlands; from 8,000 to 10,000 bags are annually imported into Liverpool. The sheep upon which it grows is hardy, and thrives where the more delicate races would die, and makes the best of mutton when well fatted. Upon this wool our carpet manufacturers draw for a large portion of their supply. The sheep are not housed in the Highlands, and for protecting them from the inclemency of the weather they are covered with a preparation of tar and grease, well rubbed on the fleece. Scotch wools are sold by the 24 lbs. weight.

The "unlaid" wool is from the same kind of sheep on the south side of the Highlands. This sheep is housed in cold weather. The "laid" wastes about 40, and the unlaid about 15 per cent. on coming to the cards. The nearer wool approaches hair, if it will take colors, the better it is for carpets, because it is more elastic, retains the dirt less, and sweeps better. The coarse hairy wools, of a brittle staple, are generally used for filling carpets and negro cloths.

Smyrna, Salonica, and Adrianople wools are coarse and hairy, rather harsh; staple of medium length. They are imported washed and unwashed, and waste, in cleaning for the cards, from 40 to 50 per cent.

Crimea wool, grown in the south of Russia, and imported limed and unlimed from Crimea and the Black Sea, is free from burrs, and wastes from 40 to 60 per cent.

East India wool much resembles the former, and has not been inaptly compared to dog's hair. It has recently come forward in very large quantities. It is much used for the blanket and carpet trades.

Cape wools are mostly imported in the fleece, and are called hairskins, being valuable to, and eagerly sought by, morocco dressers. The wool or hair, or a large proportion of it, is of no value except to builders. It will not dye or take colors. The Cape colony supplies us with about one-seventh part of the wool we require.

We have thus taken a general survey of the classification and characters of the principal home and foreign wools. Great Britain and Ireland, with a population of 24,500,000, have about 32,000,000 sheep, or 1,306 for every thousand inhabitants. Now as Ireland, with seven or eight millions of inhabitants, is computed to possess little more than two millions of sheep, Great Britain, independent of Ireland, must stand considerably higher than any other country in Europe in comparing the number of sheep kept in the country with the inhabitants; more especially if we compare the weight of mutton and the weight of wool produced in the respective countries. Mr. Southey, one of our most intelligent London wool brokers, in his last published work, assumed that we annually clip 40 millions of sheep, while the fleeces of 15 millions more, slaughtered, pass through the hands of the fellmongers. The basis of the woollen manufacture then would be about 275 million pounds of home-grown wools. Thirty-two millions British fleeces, averaging 4 lbs. each, would give 450,000 packs, equal to 50,000 tons, and this, at an average of 10d. per pound, would amount to £4,500,000 sterling in value. If we add the foreign and colonial wool imported; 391,622 bales, equal to 47,905 tons, averaging it at 1s. 6d. per lb., we have £7,750,000 more, making the worth of the raw material nearly £12,500,000. The following different breeds of sheep are to be found in Great Britain:—The Teeswater breed, the Lincolnshire breed, the Dishley or Leicester breed, the Cotswold breed, the Romneymarsh breed, the Devonshire breed, the Ross or Ryeland breed, the Wiltshire breed, the Berkshire breed, the Dorsetshire breed, the Norfolk breed, the Dun-faced breed, the Southdown breed, the Cheviot breed, the black-faced breed, the Hardwick breed, the Welsh breed, the Shetland breed, and the Merino or Spanish breed. Some of the above varieties will be found to

Wool Trade

suit one locality better than another, and some will certainly prove more profitable in any situation than some of the others, yet all of them have their advocates.

There are in London fifteen wool merchants, two wool warehouse-keepers, (Messrs. Browne and Eagle, and Mr. J. Cooper,) twenty-six wool-staplers, and twenty-one wool-brokers. The particular locality in which the wool-brokers domicile is in Basinghall-street and Coleman-street.

The London public wool sales are held at the Hall of Com merce, about every six weeks during the season, commencing in May, and closing in November. They are attended by dealers and manufacturers from Yorkshire, the great seat of consumption, and other English counties, and by continental purchasers. The Germans, Belgians, and French, who used to send us considerable quantities of wool, are now regular buyers in our markets, and their purchases at the last colonial wool sales were little short of £200,000. The sales vary from 30,000 to 70,000 bales at a time, according to the arrivals and stock on hand. 3,000 bales can be housed in daily, and 15,000 delivered from the London Dock warehouses, where 200 men are employed, exclusive of clerks and foremen. The imports into these docks alone average 130,000 bales annually, of the value of £2,600,000. Every bale, when on show, is inspected, by drawing out a sample of the wool, which, after examination, is thrown down upon the floor, and the buyers frequently walk knee deep in it.

The number of bales of foreign wool imported into London some years ago were as follows:—

Foreign Wool.	Bales Imported.	Foreign Wool.	Lbs. cleared for home use.
1839	54,683	13,294	836
1840	42,263	12,862	228
1841	39,192	10,238	517

COLONIAL WOOL IMPORTED INTO LONDON.

1839	38,572	bales,	weighing	about	9,721,312 lbs.
1840	41,573	"	"	"	10,311,637 "
1841	54,764	"	"	"	13,845,555 "

The imports recently into London, classifying the wool, have been as follows, in bales:—

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
German	11,061	6,982		35,517	26,084
Spanish and Portuguese	770	1,893			
N. S. Wales and Victoria.	95,932	106.606	143,813	143,400	151,534
Tasmania	17,926	17 468			
South Australia	10,057	10,927			
Western Australia	813	1,046			
New-Zealand	661	1,502			
Cape of Good Hope	20,345	19,855	19,688	20,987	22,515
East India	2,931	3,474	6,294	8,915	18,434
Russia	13,601	6,280	14,024	12,053	17,159
Peruvian	12,387	6,064	5,854	8,860	7,494

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
River Plate	1,660	1,119	227	633	2,960
Barbary	1,600	3,173	4,423	4,313	5,787
Turkey, Egypt, Syria, and Trieste	1,203	2,978	3,732	6,749	5,857
Italian and N. American	973	515			
Sundry	355	532	92,647	78,059	118,174*
Total sheep's wool	192,278	190,414			
Goats' wool	13,254	12,884	7,298	10,980	15,624
Total imports to United Kingdom	285,190	278,022	318,000	325,166	391,622

The imports of colonial wools (Australian and Cape) into London and Liverpool were 163,988 bales in 1851, and 166,778 in 1852.

The whole imports, British and foreign, into Liverpool last year were 120,909 bales.

In 1852, the total importation of sheep's wool was 91,692,864 pounds, of which 11,266,939 lbs. were exported, leaving 80,425,925 lbs. for home consumption. Of goat's hair wool, 2,564,330 lbs. were imported in 1852, and 71,734 lbs. re-exported, 2,492,596 lbs. being consumed. Last year the imports were (taking the bales to average 2½ cwt. each) 109,654,160 lbs.

The following return gives the classified imports of wool into Great Britain for the last six years:—

	1847. Bales.	1848. Bales.	1849. Bales.	1850. Bales.	1851. Bales.	1852. Bales.	1853. Bales.
German	41,396	48,478	45,839	30,491	26,514	36,114	26,084
Spanish	1,953	403	516	2,105	5,272	903	947
Portugal	3,005	2,922	4,420	7,361	12,827	7,746	10,440
Australian	94,292	110,941	125,732	138,679	144,320	145,767	153,064
Cape of G. H.	13,566	13,409	20,345	19,879	19,668	21,011	22,708
Russian	7,055	7,402	19,681	9,758	15,259	13,687	21,857
Sundries	84,529	89,482	71,657	69,749	83,225	89,563	116,522
Totals	246,796	273,037	285,190	278,022	307,085	314,791	391,622

The proportion of foreign to colonial wool imported is shown by the annexed figures:—

	Colonial.	Foreign.	Total.
1851	174,744	132,341	307,085 bales.
1852	185,670	129,121	314,791 "
1853	210,979	180,643	391,622 "

There is a little discrepancy in the returns from which we quote, for Messrs. Hughes and Ronald, of Liverpool, give the total imports in 1851 at 318,000 bales, and in 1852 at 325,166 bales, of which 207,929 was foreign wool imported into London.

The imports of Foreign, Colonial, and British wools into Liverpool, from 1835 to 1853, have been as follows:—

---

* The sundries in the last three years include the imports.

London Wool trade.

	Bales.		Bales.
1835	52,075	1845	91,931
1836	76,088	1846	101,124
1837	60,924	1847	94,143
1838	75,057	1848	101,649
1839	78,108	1849	80,64
1840	77,794	1850	82,028
1841	92,922	1851	93,102
1842	51,427	1852	88,526
1843	61,922	1853	120,909
1844	74,309		

The total imports of wool into the United Kingdom, in the last four years, according to the annual circular of Messrs. Hughes and Ronald, have been as follows:—

	Bales.		Bales.
1850	278,022	1852	325,166
1851	318,000	1853	391,622

The increase in the supply of East Indian wool has been very remarkable. In 1850, the import was under 10,000 bales, while for the past year (1853), it has exceeded 35,000, of which more than the half came in through Liverpool. China is also coming forward as a producer, having sent us 1,000 bales last year.

The progressive imports of wool from our East Indian possessions are shown by the following figures:—

	Bales.		Bales.
1847	8,123	1851	12,478
1848	16,923	1852	21,109
1849	11,041	1853	35,207
1850	9,704		

Art. VI.—TEXAS AND HER PROSPECTS.

[The passage of the Great Pacific Railroad bill by the Legislature of Texas, framed in the most liberal spirit, offers to that State the prospects of a bright future, and events may be expected very speedily to determine it. We shall refer to this railroad measure very soon in the Review, but in the meanwhile take pleasure in furnishing a contribution from the pen of Mr. Gilbert, of the *Matagorda Tribune.*]

It will be seen that the country bordering on the Cibolo stream is alluded to for the fine qualities of its land, its luxuriant pastures, pure water, and adaptability to sheep and cattle raising. The soil on the margin of this stream partakes of several varieties: in the valleys, the black alluvial deposits, which is vastly rich and almost inexhaustible, resists the drought, and is capable of producing every description of crops; and the more elevated slopes, a dark brown sandy loam, called "post-oak," is to be found, which is also an excellent description of soil. The section of the Cibolo through which we passed is better timbered than any other portion of the route between the Guadalupe and San Antonio. The Cibolo is settling up rapidly with sheep and stock raisers, and several planters have recently entered into cotton growing on a large scale. We saw several fine fields of the great staple under cultivation, looking remarkably vigorous and promising. However, it is our opinion, that the business will never be carried on to any great extent here. Its remoteness from a market, (until the railroad is completed, or cotton manufactories established in San Antonio), the scarcity of heavy tracts of good land connected, so essential to the success of cotton planting, together with the more certain, and equally profitable production of wool, will give a preponderance to the latter. The Cibolo takes its source in a chain of mountains some several hundred miles to the N. W. of its confluence with the San Antonio River, where it enters some 50 miles below that city. At the "crossing," about 30 miles coastward, or to the east of San Antonio, there is a scattered settlement of agriculturists, sheep and stock raisers, who have recently cast their fortunes in our promising State. We presume there is very little, if any, unlocated land in this vicinity. However, we have noticed large tracts advertised for sale, recently, by agents and speculators, and have been informed that desirable locations can be purchased here at from $1 to $3 per acre. Should the contemplated San Antonio and Mexican Gulf Railroad be constructed, as it doubtless will be in the course of a few years, lands in this portion of the State must become greatly enhanced in value. If our correspondent designs entering into sheep raising, we would especially direct his attention to the Cibolo country, although there are many other sections of Western Texas affording excellent facilities for the successful prosecution of this branch of industry. The fine muskeet pastures in the vicinities of the Medina, the San Antonio, and further north, the Comal, are scarcely less inferior for this purpose, in many respects, to the Cibolo, although our own choice would centre on the latter. On the two former, the few experiments that have been made, have been crowned with the most eminent success; and we are informed that many persons are about entering into the business extensively on the Medina. The rich valley of the Colorado is also well adapted to sheep raising, although we believe that but few attempts have yet been made to test its practicability. Some few years ago, a gentleman brought out from Western Virginia a small lot of improved stock to Colorado county, for the purpose of crossing with the Mexican breed, and he informed us that they succeeded admirably well. However, other pursuits calling his attention, he sold out, since which we have heard nothing of the re-

Texas

sults of the enterprise. Indeed, almost every portion of Western Texas is well adapted to sheep raising, and many years will not roll by ere wool will become one of our prime staples, and the pursuit one of the most profitable branches of her industry. The reasons are obvious. Our prairies afford the finest grasses in the world, without the labor of man; our winters are mild, open, and warm, furnishing green food, with a regularly growing fleece nearly the year round, but a small capital is requisite to engage in the business, almost within the reach of every industrious man, the returns are rapid, the expenses attending the pursuit merely nothing in comparison with those in the higher latitudes, and the profit large at the present high premiums for the staple. Lands are cheap, our population is increasing, transportation facilities improving, and the demand for domestic wool rapidly on the increase, with a corresponding advance in price with the consumption. It is the opinion of many experienced men in the business, that wool growing in our extensive prairies, if properly conducted, could be made far more profitable than cotton or sugar. However, all these productions have their peculiar locality in Texas, better adapted to their growth and production in some sections than in others. While Old Caney, the Colorado and Brazos bottom lands are celebrated for their sugar and cotton, the Western prairies for their sheep and stock raising facilities, the mountainous regions in the northwestern portion of the State offer best inducements for the cultivation of all of the cereal grains. In McLellan county, high up on the Brazos, the farmers have gone into the cultivation of wheat, rye, oats, &c., with eminent success. An extensive range of country above Austin, on the Colorado, offers, probably, equally favorable inducements for this pursuit. In the German settlements further west, on the Comal, Medina, and on the Hondo, Seco, and other streams, the few attempts that have been made at raising wheat have succeeded remarkably well. Corn will grow indiscriminately, and in the greatest abundance, in every portion of the State, with less labor, and a more bountiful return than, perhaps, any other part of the world. From sixty to seventy bushels per acre is an average production of the Caney and Peach Creek lands, which, doubtless, might be increased by a higher degree of cultivation. None is raised for transportation, as cotton and sugar pay best. In favorable seasons, these lands average from one and a half to two bales of cotton, or two hogshead of sugar to the acre. Land in these vicinities is always in demand, brings a high price, and is either held by minors, non-resident, or is already under cultivation. Small capitalists could do better higher up on the Colorado, or further west, where land is cheaper, and better adapted to small farming. There is some very good land in Matagorda county, bordering on the bay and its tributary creeks, very well calculated for limited farming operations and stock-raising combined, or the latter alone, and affording the advantages of a convenient market and access for shipments, which can be purchased at low rates—say 25c. to 50c. per acre. This soil might be rendered capable of good production by cultivation, but timber is scarce here. The prairies afford excellent pasturage for stock. Some attempts have recently been made to grow sheep on the coast ranges on the western side of this bay, and although we had some grounds for sanguine hope of its practicability from previous experiments, we regret to learn recently from those who engaged in the business, that it does not succeed well. The sheep sicken and die in large numbers —whether from disease contracted in the low altitude, or from deleterious grasses of the locality, is not known. On the opposite, or peninsular side of the bay, which is more elevated, they appear to succeed better.

With regard to the price of the different grades of sheep in Texas, we are scarcely enabled to give a definite answer. In Matagorda county there are not more than four or five thousand altogether—and we know of none for sale. They are principally crosses of the Merino and South Down with the Mexican, and may probably be estimated worth $2 50 per head. In the neighborhood of San Antonio, Mexican sheep can be purchased at $1 a $1 25 per head, perhaps less just now, as we understand that large droves have recently passed over the Rio Grande into Texas. Some few of the improved breeds have recently been imported into the State by stock-raisers—none, however, we imagine, for sale. Sheep of this description would bring a good price in Texas, and emigrants designing to engage in the business here should bring a stock to commence with. The Merino, for several reasons, is considered best suited to our climate. They possess strength of lungs and limbs, and being originally from a warm temperature, are easily acclimated. Climate is a law of nature, and her laws are generally found to harmonize. Practical experience has established the fact that sheep are not necessarily inhabitants of the snow-clad regions, but, on the contrary, are found to improve in vigor and wool in the lower latitudes. Thus, every advantage considered, the prairies of Western Texas present the best facilities for sheep raising of any part of the world.

Texas

Art. VII.—THE TOBACCO TRADE FOR 1853.

[WE are indebted to CHARLES DE FORD, merchant of Baltimore, for the following views upon this subject. It will be perceived that the writer confines himself for the most part to the statistics of his own city. Those who are disposed to pursue the subject will find full particulars of the tobacco trade of other great marts in previous numbers of the REVIEW. Those of New-Orleans, the greatest of these marts, are contained in the November and December numbers of 1853.]

STATEMENT OF MANUFACTURED TOBACCO.

	Stock in factors' hands.	Receipts.	Stock for the year.	Sales.
January 1st, 1849......packages	23,000	46,000	69,000	60,000
" " 1850	9,000	50,000	59,000	47,000
" " 1851	12,000	51,000	63,000	50,000
" " 1852	13,000	70,000	83,000	61,000
" " 1853	22,000	94,000	116,000	81,000
" " 1354	35,000	—	—	—
Average for five years	18,200	62,500	78,000	59,800

Estimated as packages of ¾ boxes.

The following list exhibits the extreme prices of manufactured tobacco during the last year and at this date:—

Fancy Twist	30 a 60c.	Fine 5's and 8's, lump	17 a 22c., unchanged.
" lb. lump	40c. a $2.	Good " "	14 a 16c., "
Extra " "	25 a 35c., unchanged.	Common 5's and 8's	8 a 13c., "
Fine " "	20 a 24c., "	" 16's, 18's & 20's	7 a 10c., "
Good " "	14 a 19c. to 16 a 19c.	Ladies' Twist	22 a 24c., "
Common lb. lump	7 a 12c., unchanged.	Spun 6's and 7's	19 a 21c., "

The receipts were 24,000 packages *more* than during the previous year, and 32,500 packages more than the average for the past five years. The sales were 20,000 packages *more* than during the previous year, and 21,200 packages more than the average for the past five years.

The stock in factors' hands consists of two-thirds pounds and half-pound lumps, and one-third small lumps. A considerable part of the pound and half-pound lumps is *mouldy* or *sour;* in small lumps there is a less proportion. Much of the pound lumps was manufactured out of *high cost* leaf tobacco, for superior and extra grades, but *since sweating* does not open equal to those qualities, and must be sold under an *inferior* class.

The crop of leaf tobacco manufactured last year was undoubtedly of an inferior quality, being deficient in those properties necessary to secure its keeping in a sound condition, as the unusually large stock of *mouldy* and *sour* tobacco in factors' hands will abundantly prove.

Considerable importance is attached to the size of lumps, rendering it difficult to sell those weighing over seven or eight ounces. Pound lumps with *bright* wrappers continue in favor, and command the quickest sales. Until within a few years, but little of this description reached this market, which has now become the largest for its sale.

The past year has been very prolific in inventions of new sizes of manufactured tobacco, with variations in style of package; those we have classed under the head of Fancy Tobacco. *Twist* and other fancy sizes are generally neglected, but few have met with any approval, rendering it exceedingly difficult to dispose of such even at saving prices to the manufacturer.

It will be observed from the above table, that this branch of the tobacco trade has very largely *increased* during the past *three years.* The receipts and sales of the year just closed exhibit a much larger ratio of increase than any previous year; it is doubtless the result of well-assorted stock, with the new facilities for inland and coastwise distribution.

As a market for manufactured tobacco, Baltimore, if we regard the receipts, stands second; if we, however, look to the quality of the tobacco received here, it may be considered the first in the United States. Being the nearest market to the manufacturers, with every facility of transportation at the cheapest rates, the largest proportion of pound lumps of *fancy, extra* and *superior grades*, is shipped here, furnishing a *complete assortment* for the market, and offering *superior inducements to the Southern* and *Western trade.*

We would offer the following observations as having some bearing on the additional stocks of manufactured tobacco in factors' hands in the United States. The facilities for rapid communication and transportation by the magnetic telegraph, steamers and railroads, no longer render it necessary for dealers in the interior of the country to purchase so seldom, or in such large quantities as in former years, thereby leaving nearly the whole stock of the country in factors' hands in the principal marts; if this is not wholly true, it is one of those changes of trade that seem to us most consistent with the times, and it will before many years be realized to the fullest extent. Hence, in regard to prices, they should not be so much influenced by the present large stocks in factors' hands, and in connection with the large curtailment in manufacturing, we should expect a more stable condition of markets at the close of this year.

The stock of manufactured tobacco in factors' hands in the United States has increased for three years past; and now may be safely estimated at 135,000 packages—being 35,000 packages more than the previous year. The demand for California and Australia has subsided; the stocks in those markets are so large that few, if any, orders can be expected from those points during the current year.

The current prices of manufactured tobacco during the past year have not generally yielded a profit to the manufacturers. The experience derived from the year just closed, we hope will secure an adherence strictly to the prudent course adopted at the commencement of this year, as we are confident it will exert a very favorable influence on the markets, and tend to secure sales at remunerating prices.

INSPECTIONS OF LEAF TOBACCO.

	Hhds.
Amount of Tobacco on hand in Baltimore, and on ship-board, January 1, 1853	11,759
Amount imported, 1853	48,667
Received for District of Columbia, not inspected here, but included in shipments.	600
	61,026
Shipments to foreign ports, 1853	49,142
" coastwise for home consumption, 1853	1,300
	50,442
Stock on hand January 1, 1854	10,584

The kinds inspected during the year 1853 :—

	Hhds.
Maryland	29,248
Ohio	17,947
Kentucky	1,380
Virginia	78
Pennsylvania	14
	48,667

The shipments to foreign ports for 1853 are as follows :—

	Hhds.
To Bremen	18,702
" Rotterdam	10,395
" Amsterdam	9,980
" France	5,380
	44,457

	Hhds.
To England	2,773
" Trieste	1,618
" Africa, West Indies, and other ports.	294
	49,142

TABLE OF LEAF TOBACCO INSPECTIONS IN BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST TEN YEARS.

YEARS.	Maryland.	Ohio.	Virginia and other kinds.	Total.
1844	32,249	15,464	1,224	48,957
1845	39,538	26,696	1,755	67,989
1846	41,416	29,626	754	71,896
1847	34,580	15,219	772	50,571
1848	23,491	9,702	703	33,906
1849	30,689	13,664	1,248	45,601
1850	27,085	13,965	783	41,833
1851	25,013	16,798	931	42,742
1852	29,569	17.720	1,043	48,332
1853	29,248	17,947	1,472	48,667
Average for 10 years	31,287	17,660	1,068	50,849

EXPORTS OF LEAF TOBACCO FROM THE PORT OF BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST TEN YEARS.

YEARS.	Bremen.	Rotterdam.	Amsterdam.	France.	All other places.	Total.
1844	17,139	11,864	7,095	7,212	1,594	44,904
1845	26,832	18,171	10,944	7,183	2,880	66,010
1846	24,404	9,498	6,181	6,341	3,037	49,491
1847	22.967	7,819	11,388	9,413	1,895	53,482
1848	12,787	7,910	3.403	4,959	134	28,890
1849	18,821	13,783	8,725	9,562	1,033	51,924
1850	15,864	7,814	5,973	8,177	6,540	44,368
1851	12,654	9,694	4,154	2,327	5,295	34,124
1852	22.860	11,473	5,067	7,679	5.278	52,357
1853	18,702	10,395	9,980	5,380	4,685	49,142
Average for 10 years	19,303	10,481	7,261	6,626	3,236	48,469

Maryland and Ohio Leaf Tobacco.—We present a table of the inspections at, and exports from Baltimore, for the year 1853. Also, a table of inspections and exports for the past ten years, with the average for the same period. The inspections of Maryland tobacco were 321 hhds. less than the previous year. The maximum of this crop may be fixed at 80,000 hhds., but will seldom reach that quantity. The high prices of breadstuffs and labor are causes sufficient to check the production during the present year. The small stock at home and in foreign markets, with the prospect of diminished production, will most probably sustain present prices. Ohio tobacco has increased 227 hhds. over the inspection of the previous year. The maximum of this crop may be fixed at 18,000 hhds. Besides the same circumstances affecting this crop as well as the Maryland, there is one other well calculated to diminish its production; the planters are growing tobacco from foreign seeds, classed in trade under the head of "Spanish Seed Leaf Tobacco," which is packed in cases, and yields them better returns than the kinds shipped in hhds.

KENTUCKY LEAF TOBACCO.—There were inspected in our market the past year 493 hhds. more than the previous year. The premature announcement of the opening of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad last year to Wheeling, with the delays attendant thereon, diverted much tobacco of this crop, intended for Baltimore, to other markets. We make the following extract from our last Annual Circular, as conveying all that is necessary to communicate under this head:—

"No efforts have been used to make this a market for Western tobacco, because the facilities for inland transportation to this market have been wanting. The opening of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad to Wheeling, last month, at once presents the desired facilities for safe transportation, and must eventually divert the largest portion of this crop to this market. We call the particular attention of our friends in the West to the following facts and views, connected with the shipment of Western tobacco to this market, as worthy of more than casual attention. This is already an old-established tobacco market, occupying the second rank in the United States, having an annual inspection for the *planters* of the entire tobacco crops of two States, amounting to from 40,000 hhds. to 50,000 hhds. per annum, which are *exported directly* to foreign markets from this port. This shows a sufficient basis to make Baltimore the *largest* market in the United States; for the accomplishment of which but one step is necessary, a step greatly to the interest of the planters—that is, to place 10,000 to 20,000 hhds. in the market this year.

"Many long-established houses are engaged here exclusively in the purchase of leaf tobacco for foreign countries, and representing the largest tobacco houses in Europe. Orders received by these houses for Western tobacco are consequently sent to other markets, when the interest of the European purchaser would be promoted, if he were enabled to fill his orders for all kinds of American tobacco in one market, and thereby save expenses.

"Planters and Western dealers will, we think, be induced to ship their tobacco to this market, when they remember that Baltimore is a market already established for leaf tobacco; that the cost of transportation is comparatively much less than to any other seaboard city; that we have the finest fire-proof public warehouses established here for the inspection, cooperage and storage; under the immediate superintendence and direction of State officers. The warehouse expenses are paid by the party who purchase the tobacco—no charge is made for storage until after twelve months.

"The tobacco suitable for cigars, which yields the planters the best profit, as well as other grades, undergoes generally a great deterioration in value by the influence of the climate at New-Orleans, as well as by shipment through the Gulf. This depreciation in value is oftentimes equal to the *inland cost* of transportation to this city. By the inland transportation it is not subject to deterioration, nor liable to other damage or waste, as by the river transportation to New-Orleans. All the various descriptions of tobacco in the Western crop will find a market here."

VIRGINIA LEAF TOBACCO.—The crop inspected last year amounts to 54,000 hhds., and is below an average if estimated in lbs., because many hhds. only weighed 500 lbs., and nearly every hhd. was below the average weight of former years. The crop was an inferior one, and was sold at extremely high prices. About 44,000 hhds. were taken for home manufacture, leaving but a small quantity for export. Although manufacturers will take much less tobacco during the current year, we do not think prices will vary much from those of last year. Causes that depress prices of other crops of tobacco in the United States, do not act so forcibly with this crop, as most of the planters are able; and invariably hold over their tobacco one or two years, rather than submit to much decline in prices.

STATEMENT OF LEAF TOBACCO.

		Hhds.			Hhds.
Stock of Leaf Tobacco in Europe, 1853		45,000	Consumption in Europe, 1854		125,000
" " " in U. States, 1853		55,631	Consumption of the U. States :—		
Total stock on hand		100,631	Maryland and Ohio	2,000 hhds.	
Estimate for 1853 :—			Virginia	38,000 "	
Maryland and Ohio	42,000 hhds.		Kentucky	20,000 "	
Virginia	45,000 "				60,000
Kentucky and all others	75,000 "				185,000
		162,000			
		262,631	Stock in Europe and U. States, in 1855.		77,630

There remains in the United States, Great Britain and on the Continent, about 100,631 hhds. of American tobacco—showing about the same stock in Europe as at the same date last year. We also present an estimate of the stock, consumption and production for the year, from which there will be probably on hand at the close of this year in Europe and the United States, 77,630 hhds.

Statement of the Production, Exports and Consumption of Tobacco in the United States, not including the consumption of Foreign Tobacco.

1840.		1850.	
U. States growth of Tobacco	219,163,319 lbs.	U. States growth of Tobacco	199,532,494 lbs.
Exports :—		Exports :—	
Leaf	177,393,600	Leaf	115,134,000
Manufactured	7,503,644	Manufactured	7,235,358
Snuff	68,553	Snuff	37,442
Total exports	184,965,797 lbs	Total exports	122,406,780 lbs.
United States consumption	34,548,557	United States consumption	81,933,571
U. S. consumption per head	2 lbs. ½ oz.	U. S. consumption per head	3 lbs. 8 oz.

Statement exhibiting the number of Hhds. of Tobacco exported from the United States from 1839 *to* 1852 *inclusive, and the average price per pound and gross value. Also, the number of pounds of Manufactured Tobacco and Snuff gross exported in the same period.*

YEARS.	No. hhds. Leaf Tobacco.	Average price per lb.	Total value.	Manufactured Tobacco. Lbs.	Snuff.	Value of Manufact'd Tobacco and Snuff.
1839	78,995	10⅜	9,832,943	4,214,943	42,467	616,211
1840	119,484	6¾	9,883,657	6,787,165	37,132	813,672
1841	147,828	7	12,576,703	7,503,644	68,553	873,877
1842	158,710	4⅝	9,540,755	4,434,214	42,668	525,490
1843	94,454	4⅛	4,650 979	3,404,252	20,465	278,819
1844	163,042	4⅝	8,397,255	6,046,878	28,668	536,600
1845	147,168	4¼	7,469,819	5,312,971	44,399	538,498
1846	147,998	4¾	8,478,270	6,854,856	52,458	695,914
1847	135,762	4⅜	7,342,086	7,844,592	37,051	658,950
1848	136,665	4¾	7,551,122	6,698,507	36,193	568,435
1849	101,521	4¼	5,840,247	7,159,397	49,888	613,044
1850	145,729	5⅝	9,951,013	5,918,583	44,690	648,832
1851	95,945	8	9,219,251	7,235,358	37,422	1,143,547
1852	137,097	6	10,031,283	8,436,253	58,475	1,317,622

The above statements are made from the returns to the Government, and will serve for future reference.

It is proper, in conclusion, that we should call attention to the present state of the European world and the necessity of inquiring into the probable condition of the Hungarian and other continental crops, should the Eastern question not be speedily settled. Unless the present active and energetic measures adopted by the English and French governments should arrest the progress of the Russian autocrat, and induce him to withdraw his unfounded pretensions and his unwarrantable interference with the Ottoman Empire, under the specious pretence of protecting the Greek Church, it is manifest that a general war must ensue. Austria cannot remain quiet. Her Hungarian subjects will take advantage of the dangerous position of Russia to renew their efforts at freedom. Silesia will recall the days of Frederick II., and it would not be strange if Poland should join the opponents of Russia. In this state of the continent, but little time or attention will be given to the production of Turkish, Hungarian, or other continental crops of tobacco; and the demand, therefore, for our own tobacco, so far as it can supply the foreign crops, will necessarily be increased, and the prices must rise. A few weeks, however, will determine this result, and it is probably too curious to inquire how far the interest of every one of our correspondents is connected with the next note that may emanate from the pen of Count Nesselrode, or the next resolve that may enter the brain of the autocrat of all the Russias! Whatever may be the future action of the belligerents, it cannot be doubted that even the present hostilities will materially affect the crops and productions of the countries that now form the seat of war, and our correspondents should bear this in mind in their operations.

Art. VIII.—COTTON.

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY OF THE GROWTH AND TRADE IN COTTON, AND OF IMPORTANT INVENTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS IN ITS MANUFACTURE.

B. C.
440, or about that time, first mention of cotton in history by Herodotus.
63. Cotton awnings first used in the theatre at Rome, by Lentullus Spinther.

A. D.
50. Cotton plant extensively known in Egypt and some of the adjacent countries.
800. Cotton used in Greece in the manufacture of paper.
1252. Cotton goods made in Persia.
1280. Manufacture of cotton introduced into China from India.
1298. Cotton used in England for candle-wick.
1368. Cotton used extensively in China.
1430. Fustians first made in Flanders, with a linen warp and cotton weft.
1500. First attempt to introduce cotton goods into England.
1516. The Caffres, in Southern Africa, wore cotton dresses.
1530. The common spinning wheel invented by Jurgen, at Brunswick, in Germany.
1560. Cotton imported into England from the Levant.
1565. First act of British parliament relating to cotton goods.
1582. A mercantile commission sent from England to Constantinople and other parts of Turkey, to learn any secrets in the arts of manufacturing, dyeing, &c.
1589. The stocking frame invented by William Lee.

1590. Cotton cloth brought to London, from Benin, on the coast of Guinea.

1631. Printed calicoes first introduced into London, from India.

1641. Cotton wool imported into England exclusively from the Levant. At this period, all warps were made with linen, and wove with cotton imported from Cyprus and Smyrna.

1644–50. Conquest of China by the Tartars; manufacture of cotton greatly increased in that empire.

1650. Very fine calicoes and muslins made at Calicut, in India, which were whitened with lemon-water.

" Fustians and dimities first introduced into England.

1670. The Dutch loom first used in England.

1676. Calico printing commenced in London. Introduced into England the year before.

1677. Value of India calicoes consumed in England, £160,000.

1688. 450,000 lbs. raw cotton, and 1,450,000 lbs. of yarn, imported into France from the Levant.

1698. First steam engine constructed and turned to useful purposes, by Savery.

1700. Manufacture of muslins first attempted at Paisley, Scotland.

1701. Value of cotton goods exported from England, £23,000.

1725. Lawns and cambrics first manufactured at Glasgow—James Monteith being the first manufacturer who warped a muslin web in Scotland.

1733. First cotton yarn spun by machinery in England, by Mr. Wyatt.

1734. The Trustees of Georgia were presented with a paper of cotton seed, by Philip Miller, of Chelsea, England.

1735. The Dutch first export cotton from Surinam.

1738. Lewis Paul first took out a patent for a machine for spinning with rollers, invented by John Wyatt.

" The fly shuttle invented by John Kay, of Bury, England.

1742. The first mill for spinning cotton in England, erected at Birmingham. It was moved by asses, was unsuccessful, and the machinery was sold in 1743.

1750. The fly shuttle in general use.

" 3,831,620 lbs. of raw cotton, and 3,381,625 lbs. yarn, imported into France from the Levant.

1753. A cotton reel invented by Mr. Earnshaw.

1756. Cotton velvets and quiltings first made in England.

1760. Warping mill invented. Drop shuttle box invented by Robert Kay. Value of cotton manufactures in Great Britain at this period, £200,000 per annum.

1760. James Hargreaves applied the stock-card to the carding of cotton, with some improvements.

1762. Cylinder cards invented.

1763. Bleaching by the old methods generally introduced in England.

1765. The manufacture of calicoes first attempted in England. Cotton velvets first made at Amiens, in France.

1766. Value of cotton goods made in England, £600,000 per annum.

1767. The spinning jenny invented by James Hargreaves.

1768. The stocking frame applied to the making of lace, by Hammond.

1769. Mr. Arkwright, afterwards Sir Richard Arkwright, obtained his first patent for spinning cotton with rollers, and built his first mill at Nottingham. This was driven by horse-power, which proving too expensive, he and his partners built another mill at Cromford in Derbyshire, which was turned by water—hence his spinning machine was called the *water-frame.*

1772. First cotton goods made in England with cotton warps.

" Messrs. Arkwright & Co. successfully attempted the manufacture of calicoes.

1774. Chlorine, or oxymuriatic acid, discovered by Scheele, a Swedish chemist.

1775. The first Provincial Congress of South Carolina recommend to the inhabitants to raise cotton.

1777. Green dye for calicoes introduced by Dr. R. Williams.

1779. Cayenne, Surinam, Essequibo, Demerara, and St. Domingo cotton most in esteem in England.

" The mule for spinning cotton invented by Samuel Crompton.

1780. First cotton mill built in Ireland. In 1824 Ireland had 145,000 spindles.

1781. Brazil cotton first imported from Maranham into England.

1782. A panic created in the cotton market of Manchester, England, in consequence of 7,012 bales of cotton being imported between December and April.

" James Watt obtained his patent for the steam engine. It had come into extensive use, to move machinery, in 1790.

" Some American manufactures of cottons first advertised for sale in Philadelphia.

1783. Surat and Bourbon cotton first imported into England about this time.

" Arkwright's machinery for carding and spinning cotton by steam, first used in Manchester, England.

1784. Arkwright's first patent expired, and a great impulse given to the manufacture of cotton.

" The cotton manufactured in Great Britain this year was 11,280,238 lbs., and valued at £3,950,000.

" Cotton imported into England, in small quantities, from the United States.

" First machine for spinning cotton imported into France, from England, by M. Morin, of Amiens.

1785. Power looms invented by Dr. Cartwright.

" Cylinder printing on cloths, invented by Bell, and much improved by Lockett.

" Bleaching first performed with oxymuriatic acid, by Bertholett, in France.

1786. The discovery of bleaching with oxymuriatic acid introduced into Great Britain, by James Watt.

" Mr. Orr, of East Bridgewater, Mass., employed R. and A. Barr, from Scotland, to construct carding, spinning, and roving machines; and the Legislature of Massachusetts, to encourage the machinists, granted them 200 pounds, lawful money.

1787. Thos. Somers, an English midshipman, constructed a model of a spinning jenny in Mass., for which the State government granted him £20. These were the first machines constructed in the United States.

" First machinery to spin cotton put into operation in France.

" 108 bales of cotton imported into England from the United States.

" The first cotton factory in the United States was organized this year, at Beverly Mass., and continued in operation about 15 years, making corduroys, bed-tickings, and cotton velvets. General Washington visited this establishment in 1789.

1789. A mule jenny constructed at Amiens, in France, with 280 spindles.

" Sea island cotton first planted in the U. S., and upland cotton began about this time to be raised for use and exportation.

" Samuel Slater arrived in the United States in November.

1790. December 20th, Samuel Slater started the first machinery for spinning cotton in the United States, at Pawtucket, R. I., constructed on Arkwright's plan. October 15th, 1791, specimens of his first yarn and cloth were sent to the Secretary of the U. S. Treasury.

" First calico printing in the United States commenced with wooden types by Herman Vandausen, a German at East Greenwich, R. I.

1791. A society of wealthy individuals, under the auspices of Alexander Hamilton, were incorporated by the legislature of New-Jersey, for the purpose of "*establishing useful manufactures.*" In May, 1792, the manufacturing town of Paterson, N. J., founded by this company. In 1794, their first cotton mill completed, under the superintendence of Peter Colt, Esq., and calico shawls and other cotton goods were printed there. In 1796, the company suspended their manufacturing operations. In 1814, the company revived and manufactures greatly extended there, by Roswell L. Colt, Esq. In 1822, Mr. John Colt commenced at this place the manufacture of *cotton duck*, with doubled and twisted yarn, without dressing or any kind of sizing.

1792. A self-acting mule invented by Mr. Kelly, of Lanark Mills, Scotland.

1793. The saw-gin for cleaning cotton invented by Eli Whitney, in the United States. His patent dated March 14th, 1794.

" Exportation of cotton from the United States to Great Britain begins to be important.

1797. Amos Whittemore, of Cambridge, Mass., invented his machine for cutting, bending, and setting card teeth.

1798. Tennant's bleaching powders invented, by Mr. Tennant, of Glasgow.

" First cotton mill, with machinery, built in Switzerland.

1799. First cotton-spinning machinery erected in Saxony.

1800. The jacquard, a most ingenious mechanism, to be adapted to a loom for weaving figured goods, invented by M. Jacquart, of Lyons, France. It may be adapted to any common loom, at an expense of about $40.

1800 or 1801. The entire stock of American cotton in Liverpool, *one bag.*

1801. Discharge work in calico printing successfully adopted by Messrs. Peel.

1803. First cotton factory built in New-Hampshire.

1805. Power looms widely and successfully introduced into England, after many failures.

" Engraved wooden rollers, used for printing cotton; invented by Barton.

1806. Machine for dressing warps invented by Mr. Johnson, who was then in the employment of Messrs. Radcliff & Ross.

1807. New markets for cotton manufactures opened by the revolutions in Spanish America.

1808. New method of engraving or stamping with dies the cylinders for printing cloth, introduced at Manchester, by

Locket. This method of engraving by means of steel dies was invented by Jacob Perkins, an American.

1808. William Mason, a skilful artist and inventor of machinery, born at Mystic, Conn.

1809. The first cotton factory in New-York, built by Doct. Capron, in Oneida county.

" The first power loom invented and patented in the United States by P. C. Curtis, of Oneida county, N. Y.

" Lace machinery much improved by Heathcott.

" British parliament granted Dr. Cartwright £10,000 for his invention of the power loom in 1787.

1810. Public attention drawn to the growing importance of cotton manufactures in the United States by Hon. Albert Gallatin and Tench Coxe, Esq.

1811. Machinery for making bobbin-net patented by John Burn, of England.

" Turkey red first introduced into calico printing by M. Koechlin, at Mulhausan.

1813. Discharging Turkey red with acid, in calico printing, patented by Jas. Thompson, F. R. S.

" Mr. Metcalfe, from America, sent to India with machines for improved cleaning of cotton.

" The first manufacturing establishment in the world combining all the operations necessary for converting the raw cotton into finished cloth, erected at Waltham, Mass., by Francis Cabot Lowell and Patrick Tracy Jackson, assisted by Mr. Paul Moody, an eminent machinist. The exportation of manufacturing machinery from England being prohibited by law, they contrived their own power looms.

1815. 8 lbs. cotton yarn sent from England to India on trial.

1816. Yarn trade opened between England and the continent.

" The first act of Congress passed having special regard to the growth and protection of manufactures in the United States. (The tariff of 1816.)

" Cotton consumed by the manufactories in the United States about 11,000,000 lbs. per annum.

1817. Francis Cabot Lowell died, *æt.* 43 years.

1818. Cotton averaged about 34 cents per pound—the highest of any year in the U. S. since 1801.

1819. New cotton lands sold very high in the United States.

1820. Steam power first applied with success to lace machinery.

" The first cotton mill erected in Manayunk, Pennsylvania, by Capt. John Towers.

1821. The site of the manufacturing city of Lowell purchased by Patrick T. Jackson, Esq., on the suggestion of Mr. Ezra Worthen. On the 9th February, 1822, the

Merrimack Manufacturing Company was incorporated. Same year the foundation of the first factory at Lowell was laid, under the agency of Kirk Boot, Esq.; and in November, 1823, the first cloth was produced under the superintendency of Ezra Worthen.

1823. The counter-twist, or Taunton speeder, invented by George Danforth, of Taunton, Mass.

" The first export of raw cotton from Egypt to England.

1824. Ezra Worthen died, June 18th.

1825. First calico printing machine imported from England to the United States, by William J. Breed, of Providence, R. I.

" A self-acting mule spinner patented in England by Roberts. The tube frame introduced there from the United States.

1826. First exports of American cotton manufactures to any considerable amount.

1828. Charles Danforth, a native of Bristol Co., Mass., invents the cap spinner, or Danforth frame, patented in England in 1830, and there known as "The American Throstle."

1831. July 7. Paul Moody, an able inventor and improver of cotton machinery, died, aged 54.

1832. An important improvement in machinery for preparing cotton for the cards, called the Picker and Lapper, patented by John C. Whitin, of Mass.

1835. The number of factories, this year, in Great Britain and Ireland, were 1,263 at work, 42 idle.

1837. April 11. Mr. Kirk Boot died at Lowell, Mass.

1839. William Mason invented his self-acting mule. Took out a patent for improvements therein in 1843.

1841. American cotton planters employed by the British Government of India, for the improvement of cotton growing, arrive in that country.

1842. Power loom for weaving ginghams and checks invented by E. B. Bigelow, of Massachusetts.

1845. March 22. Duty on cotton repealed in England.

1846. England exported 157,130,025 lbs. of cotton yarn, valued at £8,133,772.

1847. Sept. 12. Patrick T. Jackson, founder of Lowell, died at Beverly, Mass., *æt.* 68.

1848. Cotton consumed by manufactories in the United States about 254,843,400 pounds per annum.

" Power looms introduced into Tuscany about this time by F. Padredii, of Pisa.

1851. Great Exhibition in London of the works of industry of all nations.

Art. IX.—GREAT CITIES OF THE WEST—BUFFALO.

No. II.

THE population of the city is now put down at 75 or 80,000; and from tables prepared by the Equalizing Committee of the Board of Supervisors, the following facts are gathered relative to this new city—its extent and its valuation. The number of acres admitted within the city limits by the annexation of Black Rock is 23,710. The number of acres within the old city limits is not given; but it is believed it is not far from 1,800. The Assessors' valuation of real estate in the new city is $20,063,045, of which Black Rock furnishes $3,362,105. The valuation of this property, as it is equalized by the Committee, is set down at $24,681,497, of which Black Rock has $3,205,912. The value of the personal estate is estimated at $2,774,255; of which Black Rock has $75,600. The total amount of real and personal estate, as equalized, is fixed at $27,455,752; of which Black Rock is rated $3,281,512. Some idea of the increasing prosperity of this city, and its resources yet undeveloped, may be gathered from the above statistics, which are compiled from official tables.

Strangers, and even many of its own citizens, would be surprised to see the numerous works of improvement going on, and that have been completed during the past year. Large numbers of sewers have been laid, and numerous streets graded and paved. The paving which has been done has been of a superior character, and will prove of great advantage to the city. There has also been a large amount of flagging and plank-walks constructed on the outer streets, and gas and water pipes have been laid down in almost every direction. As for building, a year is not remembered when so many elegant structures for business and family occupation have been erected as the past. A destructive fire which occurred early in the summer, swept away a large number of wooden buildings in that portion of the city lying between the Canal and the Creek, known as the "infected district." This part of the city is wanted for business purposes, and is now being rapidly built up with substantial brick stores and dwellings. Large blocks, depots, hotels, warehouses, and stores, are going up in every direction on the Creek, Canal, and on almost every street. The old Market-house and City-Hall, on what is termed the Terrace, have fallen victims to the spirit of improvement, and have been torn down. In lieu of these edifices, the Common Council have purchased a lot three hundred and forty-seven feet square, on Franklin and Eagle Streets.

Its entire cost was $80,000. City buildings are already located upon the premises, the structures of which, though not designed as permanent, are very creditable to the taste of the projectors. A large and convenient City-Hall will be erected on the grounds at no distant day. A new and commodious public market building has been erected, during the year, on Michigan Street; and some $50,000 has also been appropriated for the purchase of two other locations, on which are to be erected public markets. Many residences of a superior order as to elegance and commodiousness, are going up on every hand. That portion of the city lying in rear of the Water Works, which but some two or three years since was scarcely occupied for residences, is being rapidly spread over with snug little cottages, erected by day laborers and artisans. Land in that portion of the city has risen rapidly in value within the past year. It is another evidence of the increasing prosperity and speedy growth of the city. Nor is this destined to be an ephemeral thrift. Some three hundred dwellings will be built in that neighborhood during the coming summer, by mechanics who have bought the land on which they are to be erected at low rates, and intend to make them their homes. The same may be said of other outskirts of the city. At the Hydraulics, on the flats, and, in fact, throughout the city everywhere, permanent improvements are going on. This, of course, will add very materially to the value of real estate, and advance the growth of the city in every direction.

The harbor of Buffalo, which is perfectly easy of access in all weathers, is very far from being adequate to the commerce of the place, and is often so much obstructed by small craft and canal boats, especially when forced in suddenly by stress of weather, that ingress or egress is a matter not easily or readily effected. This has been the case more particularly during the past season, owing to the large increase in the Lake marine, and the fact of so many large steamers entering the harbor daily. To relieve this pressure in part, a slip canal has been cut during the past summer, connecting the Creek with the Ship Canal. More than this, however, is required, to meet the demands of the large and daily increasing business of the port.

GENERAL STATE OF TRADE.

The business on the docks, by which is meant the buying and selling of produce, opened in spring somewhat languidly, owing to a combination of unpropitious circumstances. The unfavorable state of the market in England, in the early part of the spring, and which continued into the summer, served to depress the market for breadstuffs; while the confidence of holders, strengthened by a belief in the scantiness of the supply, materially checked operations. Navigation upon the lakes was unobstructed at an early date, some two weeks prior to the opening of the canal; but the receipts during that time were not large. After the 20th April, the day upon which business was resumed on the canal, a series of interruptions occurred, owing to the breaks in the works, and freights in consequence ruled high and irregular. Rival routes on every side were competing for the trade, which legitimately belonged to the canals of New-York. The Welland and Oswego Canals, and the Ogdensburgh and Cape Vincent Rail-roads on the one side, and the New-York and Erie Rail-road and the Southern routes on the other, were exerting all their energies to draw trade from the Erie Canal; and they were in a great measure successful, owing to the almost incessant interruption on the western division of the canal. One break was scarcely announced before information of another was received; and, despite the energy and enterprise of forwarders, the increase of boats, and the efforts of the business community, a paralysis appeared to have stricken this vast limb of commerce, and to have laid upon it suddenly, in all its vigor, the infirmities of a premature old age. The mischief entailed upon all classes by these untoward events can scarcely be calculated. The producer of the West, the commission merchant in the interior, the forwarder and the exporter were all sufferers, and Buffalo and the State were more injured than any class of individuals. All these circumstances combined served to check business on the docks; and an unnatural dullness existed. Such a state of things, however, there is good reason to believe, will not occur again. The canals have fallen into the management of other hands, men who profess at least to be their friends; and, from present appearances, if we can judge from what has already been done towards the enlargement, we may safely count upon the speedy completion of these great State works, and that during the coming season they will be kept in perfect order. From the commencement of navigation up to June, prices ruled considerably higher than for the same period during the year previous, say from 25c. to 50c. per bbl. on flour, 15c. to 20c. per bush. on wheat, and 4c. to 6c. per bush. on corn. There was every disposition on the part of speculators to operate, but the unsettled condition of freights consequent on the frequent interruptions of canal navigation kept them out of the market. After the close of the month of May, interruptions were less frequent, and a better condition of affairs was apparent, with a revival in the market.

Buffalo, as a market for the disposal of every description of produce, offers better inducements to Western merchants than any other port on the lakes. It is a fact that prices of flour and grain have ruled comparatively higher in the Buffalo market throughout the entire season than in New-York. By this we mean that if we take, for instance, the price of a barrel of flour at Buffalo, or of a bushel of wheat or corn, and add to it the freight by canal or railroad, insurance, commissions, and other incidental expenses, the margin will be found in favor of the Buffalo market. Holders who have disposed of their consignments there, have, as a general thing, done better than those who have shipped, and instances have very frequently occurred where a consignment of flour has been received there, perhaps half has been forwarded to New-York, and the balance retained at Buffalo—both parcels have been sold on or about the same day; that sold at the latter place has netted a fair profit, while that shipped to New-York has barely paid expenses. In the fall, holders of flour and grain, who shipped from the West through to New-York, have done better than they would have had they sold at Buffalo as soon as the property arrived; but had they held this property there for the same length of time that elapsed in its reaching its destination, and until it was sold, the profits realized would have been far larger. These are facts beyond dispute, as the figures of the daily markets of both cities will show. The question may be asked, How comes this? One great cause which may be assigned as a reason for this state of things is, that a greater extent of country, with a large consumptive demand, looks to Buffalo for its supplies than to any other market west of New-York. The demand for the interior of the State of New-York, as well as for the New-England States, is large, and there is always either a good home or speculative demand for all descriptions of produce.

One reason which may be assigned for the high prices which ruled throughout the spring is, that during last winter purchases were made, to a considerable extent, of flour and grain, at the high rates that then prevailed, with the expectation that there would be a large foreign demand, and that prices would consequently open high in the spring. Such, however, was not the case, and the prices then paid have not been warranted by the figures obtained in the New-York market. It is also well known, that before the new harvest came in, the stock of grain at the upper lake ports was much reduced, and the arrivals from the interior were barely sufficient to keep the mills in operation. Lake freights were consequently scarce, and to obtain which vessel owners were compelled to purchase cargoes to freight their vessels at figures which not only paid them no freight, but which it was with difficulty could be obtained at Buffalo.

LAKE IMPORTS FOR 1853.

The following table will show the quantity and value of the principal articles received by lake at this port during the season of 1853:—

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Value.
Flour, bbls	983,837	$6,594,940
Pork	102,548	1,031,573
Beef	69,776	697,760
Ashes	11,553	288,825
Whisky	66,707	667,070
Seeds	37,018	370,180
Eggs	11,000	110,000
Fish	7,731	61,848
Cranberries	1,096	13,152
Oil	7,965	238,950
Meal	311	1,244
Tongues	130	1,300
Nuts	1,548	7,740
Beans	1,151	4,028
Hides, No	98,009	284,027
Leather, rolls	7,991	199,775
Broom Corn, bales	4,963	59,556
Buffalo Robes	631	31,550
Copper, tons	1,068	504,000
Coal	38,188	190,140
Iron	4,731	165,585
Lead, pigs	36,004	108,012
Wheat, bush	5,424,043	6,671,672
Corn	3,665,793	2,199,475
Oats	1,480,665	508,252
Barley	401,098	248,082
Rye	107,152	80,454
Butter, lbs	6,589,784	988,467
Cheese	5,377,800	430,224
Lard	8,185,500	818,550
Tallow	762,810	91,537
Bacon	23,075,645	1,846,051
Tobacco, hhds	2,038	142,532
Tobacco, boxes	5,030	126,250
Wool, bales	45,830	$3,668,800
Flax	520	7,800
Hemp	1,977	49,425
Pelts	5,268	132,200
Furs, packages	1,095	198.925
Lumber, feet	89,[illegible],789	1,339,421
Staves, No	9,[illegible],240	276,457
Shingles, M	3,542,642	10,629
Lath M	2,058,920	4.117
Feathers, sacks	1.556	13,995
Horses, No	1,531	153,000
Cattle	20,466	1,227,960
Sheep	23,223	69,660
Live Hogs	114,952	1,149,520
Dressed Hogs	5,178	78,660
Rags, bags	3.416	17,080
Paper, bdls	11,040	220,800
Hair, packages	58	252
Wax, bbls	213	6,390
Deer Skins, pkgs	3,837	191,850
Soap, boxes	128	512
Starch, bbls	591	5,319
" boxes	2,158	5,316
Candles, boxes	2,835	28,350
Sugar, hhds	185	18,500
Ties, No	11,682	4,400
Beans, bbls	1,172	3,516
Sundries, packages	—	3,500,000
Total value		$36,881,230
" " 1852		34,943,855
Increase in favor of 1853		$1,937,375

The following table shows the principal articles landed at Buffalo, fromthe opening to the close of navigation, for three seasons:—

ARTICLES.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Flour, bbls	1,261,301	1,299,513	983,837
Pork	33,261	60,669	102,548
Beef	70,570	76,679	69,776
Whisky	65,232	79,306	66,707
Cornmeal	2,287	5,099	311
Seed	11,146	31,559	37,018
Eggs	12,818	7,686	11,000
Fish	6,367	6,814	7,773
Oil	6,718	7,577	7,965
Cranberries	1,500	1,176	1,096
Nuts	—	2,573	1,548
Ashes, bbls	13,721	14,522	11,558
Wheat, bush	4,260,064	5,549,778	5,424,043
Corn	6,080,330	5,136,746	3,665,793
Oats	1,149,783	2,596,231	1,480,655
Rye	19,435	112,271	107,152
Barley	166,188	497,913	401,098
Butter, lbs	2,354,277	3,989,917	6,589,784
Lard	4,961,240	7,164,672	8,185,300
Tallow	728,100	1,014,686	762,810
Bacon	6,541,400	9,696,590	23,075,645
Wool, bales	61,823	45,172	45,830
Hemp	2,139	3,597	1,977
Flax	375	789	520
Broom Corn	5,402	5,420	4,963
Buffalo Robes	3,246	80	631
Feathers	—	2,285	1,556
Pelts	—	3,296	5,268
Furs, bls & bxs.	—	2,909	1,095
Leather, rolls.	8,628	7,155	7,991
Hides, No.	50,865	95,452	98,008
Copper, tons	656	439	1,068
Iron	2,542	4,848	4,731
Coal	17,281	34,665	38,188
Lead, pigs	26,983	31,916	36,004
Tobacco, hhds	1,707	6,620	2,038
Tobacco, bxs	—	7,799	5,030
Lumber, feet	84,068,559	72,337,255	89,294,789
Shingles, M	—	13,532,000	3,542,642
Lath	—	1,500,000	2,058,920
Staves, No	10,696,000	12,998,614	9,215,940
Horses	2,761	1,643	1,533
Cattle	8.594	15,926	20,466
Sheep	18,906	16,590	23,223
Live Hogs	97,697	111,223	114,952

The total value of the imports for the year 1853, as appears by our figures, is $36,881,230. We have for years back been able to obtain from the Custom House the imports by lake, and their value. This year, however, these tables have not been kept by the collector or his clerks, and we are, therefore, obliged to resort to the tables, which have been published daily, of the receipts for the year, and make out the valuation of the same, with the assistance of those who are acquainted with the prices of the different articles. We are satisfied, however, that our figures, as we give them above, are far more correct than if we were to rely on the tables which might be got up by the collector or his deputies from the manifests reported to them. It is well known that many vessels during the season arrive in port, discharge their cargo, and reload and leave port without ever reporting at the Custom House. Several of the steamers which have been engaged in the stock-trade during the past season frequently arrived in port after the Custom House had been closed. Their load was principally cattle and hogs. They are usually unloaded in a very short time, and leave port again for another load before the office opens in the morning. Such instances were of almost daily occurrence during the past summer. The reporters for the press were generally on hand, and obtained copies of their manifests, while the Custom House did not. Again, propellers which have cleared from some upper lake port for Buffalo, say Tonawanda, and it has occurred almost daily, have touched at the former place, and unloaded perhaps 1,000 barrels of flour, or 500 barrels of pork or other articles of produce, and have gone on to their destination with the remainder of their cargo without reporting there. In such cases, the vessel is not required to report to the Buffalo Custom House, and therefore no minute is kept of it unless some reporter get it. There is another reason why full receipts are not obtained at Buffalo, and that is, that vessels, on leaving the port, say of Chicago, obtain a clearance specifying their cargo, they come on to Kenosha or Milwaukie, and receive additions to their cargoes, which is not always noted in the manifest. From these facts and others, we are inclined to believe that our figures, as recorded during the season of the imports, are under their actual value.

It will also be seen, by reference to our tables under the head of Railroads, that the Buffalo and State Line Railroad carried to the city of Buffalo, during the year ending December 31, 1853, a large amount of produce, which, according to our figures, is valued at $2,234,273. This, added to the imports by lake, would make the total imports of Buffalo from the West, for the past year, $39,115,503, or an increase over 1852 of over $5,000,000; and if we add to the imports from the West, the imports by canal and railroads from the East, it will show a commerce of over *one hundred and twenty-five million dollars!* In the above, no estimate has been made of the value of the many tons of valuable goods and specie, transported by the express companies over the railroads, and on board the steamers, or of the enormous passenger trade of these lines. Were it possible to arrive at the value of such commerce, it would undoubtedly swell the aggregate amount of trade by many millions of dollars.

The amount of specie on deposit in the Custom House in Buffalo, on the 31st of December, 1853, and subject to draft, was $33,532 50.

The amount paid out by the collector of the port during the past year, to destitute and indigent sailors, was $3,235 23, and the amount collected in the district during the same period for that fund was $1,317 44. The deficit, $1,917 79, is made up by drafts on the fund appropriated by Congress for the relief of sailors.

The following table shows the entrances and clearances at that port of foreign and American vessels, together with their tonnage and crews, during the year 1853:—

Arrived.	No.	Tons.	Men.	Boys.
American vessels from Foreign ports	132	24,235.36	1,047	45
Foreign " " "	735	116,235.93	5,714	360
Total	867	140,471.29	6,761	405
Cleared.				
American vessels to foreign ports	152	29,629.66	1,278	53
Foreign " " "	735	116,266.49	6,722	358
Total	887	145,896.15	8,000	411
Coasting Trade.				
Inwards	3,239	1,491,604.60	50,917	1,179
Outwards	3,305	1,475,006.22	52,434	1,158
Total	6,544	2,966,610.82	103,351	2,337
Grand Total, 1853	8,298	3,252,978 26	128,112	3,153
" 1852	9,441	3,092,247 73	127,491	5,215
" 1851	9,050	3,087,533 80	120,542	5,251
" 1850	8,444	2,743,700.86	125,672	——

LAKE MARINE—SHIP-BUILDING.

It is not to the ocean alone that the contest for maritime superiority is to be confined. There is another vast race-course, as it is termed, upon which the struggle will be as exciting and quite as warmly contested as that which now attracts the attention of the civilized world on both sides of the Atlantic. We mean our great Northwestern Lakes.

The history of our lake marine, could it be written out in full, would be a subject of interesting study. It would present a series of triumphs in naval architecture, quite as important to the States bordering on the lakes, quite as clearly defined and as legitimately gained by the aid of nautical skill and of keen observation, united to a wise application of scientific principles, as those which have occurred along the greater extent of our national seaboard.

At the present time this subject addresses itself to the whole country connected with the commerce of the lakes with great emphasis, for the reason that the rapidly developing condition of our Western States requires an equally rapid increase of the facilities for transporting to market their annually augmented products. Whatever adds to the efficiency of our lake marine, to its sailing qualities, to the safety with which it bears its treasures over these waters, to the cheapness with which it can transport the products of our soil, our mines, our forests and manufactories, is so much added to the actual wealth of the country, to its industrial energy, and its ultimate supremacy in all the elements of power.

Buffalo, from the unsurpassed advantages offered by superiority of location, naturally takes the lead of any other lake city in this important branch of industry. The ship-yards of the city have already sent forth upon the Western waters steamers which must elicit the wonder and admiration of the world. Steamboats, propellers, and every class of sailing vessels can be built there with greater advantage to the owner in the important item of economy, and at the same time superior to all others in quality and model. The timber used is procured from Canada, and from different locations bordering on Lake Erie, and is upon the whole better than that used at many points on the upper lakes; and again, the important item of iron, which enters largely into the construction of vessels, can be laid down there at a much lower figure than at any other point on the lakes.

Buffalo is well supplied with machine-shops and furnaces, and machinery can be made in that city as cheap as elsewhere; and considering the great expense of transportation, chiefly by railroad in winter, and the disadvantages from having the hull and engine built at so great a distance from each other, perhaps cheaper. Connected with one of the yards in the city, there is a dry-dock of sufficient capacity to admit a steamer of over 2,500 tons, and three hundred and fifty feet in length, with marine railway to facilitate the hauling out and repairing of vessels. There is also near this yard a large Derrick for the handling of boilers and heavy machinery. These and other facilities possessed by Buffalo, give to her the preference as a ship-building city, and to these facts may be attributed the reason she has turned out the large amount of tonnage noted below during the past year, and what is now on the stocks, a great portion of which is building for parties residing in other lake cities.

The following is a list of the steamers, propellers, and sail vessels—their tonnage, and by whom built, at that port during the year 1853:—

Steamers.	Builders.	Tons.
Queen of the West,	Bidwell & Banta	1,851.30
Crescent City	" "	1,746.12
Garden City	" "	657.31
Mississippi	Jones & Co.,	1,827.12
St. Lawrence	"	1,844.39
Total Steamers		7,926.24
Propellers.		
Northern Michigan,	Bidwell & Banta,	359.25
Jefferson	" "	344.63
Portsmouth	" "	525.57
Young America	" "	359.49
Charter	" "	241.86
International	" "	473.89
Iowa	" "	941.53
Tug	" "	115.30
Dayton	Weeks,	366.50
Louisville	"	366.02
Cincinnati	"	366.02
Kentucky	"	366.02
Brunswick	"	512.20
Chapman	Chapman,	77.38
Underwriter	Lavaydea,	107.44
P. L. Barton	Lavaydea,	40.30
A. S. Fields	"	115.22
Total Propellers		5,678.72
Brigs.		
Young America	Jones,	346.29
Schooners.		
North Star	"	366.94
Homer Ramsdell	"	275.91
C. Reeves	"	279.80
Gem	Weeks,	306.50
Arabian	Bidwell & Banta,	353.93
Oriental	" "	270.68
Thornton	" "	353.98
Total Sail		2,553.98
Total of Steamers		7,926.24
" Propellers		5,678.72
" Sail		2,553.98
Grand Total		16,158.94

It is a significant fact, that out of 16,158.94 tons of vessel building at Buffalo during 1353, there were but eight sailing vessels, of 2,553.98 tons. The remainder, 13,604.96, consisted of steam vessels, showing conclusively that steam is growing more rapidly into favor, in a trade so admirably adapted to its successful application as that of the Western lakes. The high rates of freights on the lakes will doubtless stimulate vessel building to a great extent, during the coming winter. During last spring and fall, lake freights were very high, while in the middle of summer they were low, but only for a short period. The large amount of shipping now on the stocks at all the lake ports, leads to the hope that prices will not be apt to rule as high next spring as is generally expected. Nevertheless, there is no reason to doubt that the commercial marine of the lakes will be very prosperous for many years to come, as the increased productions of the country, resulting from the stimulated influence of the completed and completing railroads, and the changes in the channels of trade which such roads cannot fail to effect, will augment the material for transportation with an unexampled rapidity.

TRADE WITH CANADA.

By reference to the tables which follow, it will be seen that the trade between Buffalo and Canada is no inconsiderable one, and that it is increasing rapidly with each year. It may be well to observe here that much of the property purchased in Buffalo for the Canadian market passes over the Buffalo and Niagara Falls Railroad to the Suspension Bridge, where it is reported as passing into Canada, from the Niagara District, and is as such reported as the trade of that District, and therefore does not appear in our tables, while in fact it is a part of the Buffalo trade.

The total value of the imports into the District from Canada, during the year 1853, was $392,719, and the amount of duties collected thereon was $84,943 33, or an increase over last year of $15,219 59.

The value of the export to Canada from the District of Buffalo Creek, for the year 1853, as reported at the Custom-House, is $992,406, or an increase over 1852 of $151,606.

The annual duties collected at Buffalo for a series of years are as follows:—

1844	$8,120 18	1849	$46,939 86
1845	12,047 49	1850	67,649 95
1846	12,389 78	1851	92,357 69
1847	24,361 78	1852	69,723 74
1848	24,236 30	1853	84,943 33

It will be seen by the above that the amount of duties collected during 1853 falls short of that collected in 1851, by $9,414 26. Of the amount, viz.: $92,357 69, collected in 1851, $45,000 was for duties on railroad iron alone, and this year there has been, comparatively, no duties collected on that article. It therefore, appears that there has been a large increase of other articles, on which there has been a large increase of duties.

Statement of Canadian Produce Imported into the District of Buffalo Creek, for Warehousing, and for Transportation in Bond to the Port of New-York, for Transportation to Foreign Countries, during the year ending 20th Dec., 1853:—

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Wheat, bush.	163,378	$169,008 57
Flour, bbls.	19,221	102,841 44
Ashes, casks.	173	2,868 86
Butter, kegs	238	1,996 66
Beef, tcs.	100	1,230 00
Fur Skins, No.	17,855	1,125 00

Statement of Goods Transferred from Warehouse in other Districts to Buffalo, for Warehousing and for Exportation to Canada, during the season 1853:—

	Quantity.	Value.
Sugar, hhds. and tcs.	1,036	$43,291 00
Dry Goods, Hardware, etc.	—	59,203 00
		$102,494 00

Statement of Merchandise remaining in Warehouse at the Port of Buffalo on the first of January, 1853:—

	Quantity.	Value.
Earthenware, crates	814	$11,829 97
Wheat, bush.	26,319	10,563 92
Flour, bbls.	1,742	5,376 00
Sugar, hhds.	14	519 00
Brandy, casks	5	57 00
Gin, "	4	129 00

Statement of Merchandise remaining in Warehouse on the 20th Dec., 1853:—

	Quantity.	Value.
Earthenware, crates	189	$7,665 69
Brandy, casks	49	1,954 00
Pig Iron, tons	853	11,259 00
Wheat, bush.	4,918	6,250 00
Brandy and Gin, casks	24	1,523 00

Statement of Merchandise remaining in Warehouse at the Port of Buffalo on the 20th Dec., 1853 :—

Sugar, hhds. and tcs.	1,036	$43,291 00
Dry Goods, Hardware, Liquors, Cigars, etc.	—	59,203 00
Total		$102,494 00

Abstract of Domestic Produce and Manufactures Exported from the District of Buffalo Creek, during the year ending 31st Dec., 1853 :—

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Value.
Oil, Whale, galls.	9,846	$10,193	Coaches and Carriages	—	$3,316
Manufactures of Wool	—	21,035	Hats	—	643
Pork, bbls.	203	2,726	Gunpowder, lbs.	1,410	282
Hams and Bacon	13,130	1,176	Copper and Brass Man'tures	—	1,802
Cheese	19,520	1,449	Wearing Apparel	—	2,964
Whisky, galls.	49,187	11,484	Steam Engine	1	5,000
Leather, lbs.	17,291	3,611	Machines	—	850
Candles, Tallow, lbs.	9,172	945	Broom Corn	—	1,522
Tobacco	43,125	6,582	Nails, lbs.	27,766	1,567
Sugar, brown	89,286	5,565	Turpentine	—	2,379
Molasses, galls.	6,041	2,620	Rosin, bbls.	28	214
Salt, bbls.	1,433	1,605	Salt	1,200	1,376
Dry Goods	—	182,392	Engines	3	28,000
Sundries	—	41,843	Lime	134	154
Groceries	—	216,413	Horses	39	2,716
Books	—	15,496	Whalebone, lbs.	71	36
Glassware	—	12,228	Marble Stone	—	2,567
Machinery	—	9,322	Railroad Cars	9	4,200
Clocks	550	1,612	Skins, kip	—	169
Fish, dried, lbs.	19,626	971	Flour, bbls.	247	1,093
Fish, pickled, bbls.	950	1,046	Glass, boxes	770	1,316
Hardware	—	164,680	Rope, lbs.	15,000	1,471
Boots	5,111	11,573	Saddles	—	1,026
Shoes	8,178	1,315	Wood and other Lumber	—	691
Coal, tons	217	1,636	Snuff, lbs.	1,700	337
Paper	—	3,289	Lead	1,100	47
Tin Ware	—	2,471	Iron in bars	27,791	966
Books and Maps	—	12,987	Flax and Hemp Bags	250	60
Nails, lbs.	38,286	1,952	Umbrellas	168	181
Oysters	—	2,134	Earthen and Stone Ware	—	1,232
Drugs	—	3,423	Trunks	90	260
Medicines	—	2,109	Candles, sperm, lbs.	280	85
Tar, bbls.	326	1,520	Fruit Trees	—	496
Tallow	66,827	5,275	Skins and Furs	49,000	906
Corn, bush.	92,021	52,068	Castings	4,700	176
Potatoes	646	194	Bricks	27,000	111
Rice	50	1,172	Flour Barrels	600	117
Soap, lbs.	14,967	672	Satinette, yards	800	400
Iron Manufactures	—	25,324	Beef, bbls.	56	810
Cottons	27,517	2,344	Oil Cloth	826	831
Do. white	36,972	3,089	Oakum, bales	2	86
Carpeting	2,425	2,385	Beans, bush.	25	23
Brooms, doz.	46	168	Ale, bbls.	35	215
Furniture	—	11,479			
Hides	268	1,024	Total value		$992,406
Biscuit, bbls.	16	50			

Abstract of Foreign Merchandise Imported from Canada, in the District of Buffalo Creek, N. Y., for the year ending Dec. 31, 1853 :

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Value.	ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Value.
Iron, pig, tons	205	$3,269	Firewood, cords	276	$287
Iron, Scotch, tons	1,378	21,309	Lath	1,847,700	1,005
Iron, scrap, lbs.	102,788	569	Railroad Ties	27,983	4,189
Skins, deer, undress.	40	8	Barrel Hoops	11,000	22
Fur Skins	85	49	Whitewood, ft.	908,771	3,442
Lumber, Pine, und. ft.	39,005,821	183,165	Maple Lumber	1,592	264
Do. do. dressed.	474,887	3,037	Oak Piles	82	42
Timber do.	121,866	4,841	Poles	300	46
Do. Oak	399,499	22,609	Ash Lumber, ft.	19,299	95
Plank do.	1,070,948	7,766	Spars	3	9
Walnut Lumber	1,646,662	13,353	Cedar Posts	—	264
Shingles	3,042,050	2,910	Hides, green, No.	1,022	160
Staves	35,105	189	Sheep Skins	40,152	12,657
Boat Knees	295	32	Wool, lbs.	32,888	6,670

Abstract of Foreign Merchandise, &c.—(Continued.)

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Value.
Ale, bottles	72	$9
Gin, galls	1,094	374
Sherry Wine, casks	20	664
Brandy, galls	1,209	1,276
Butter, lbs	107,427	12,173
Cheese	2,902	271
Bacon	498	63
Beef	2,885	141
Rags	42,021	881
Wheat, bush	8,568	6,575
Barley	4,289	2,168
Corn	156	46
Oats	6,236	1,324
Flour, bbls	142	881
Fruit, boxes	—	126
Horses, No	83	4.607
Cattle	410	4,046
Hogs	2,067	3,186
Sheep	554	1,227
Poultry	—	99
Hay, tons	58	413
Fish	3,533	64
Stone, cords	55	131
Clay, bbls	20	2
Wagons	8	483
Shoddy, lbs	891	37
Flour, Buckwh't, cwt.	162	206
Shorts, tons	65	1,045
Crockery, crates	126	4,212
Honey, lbs	20	3
Eggs, doz.	3,066	$264
Carpeting, yards	18	7
Grass Seed, bush	606	1,059
Personal Effects	—	3,933
Old Copper, lbs	3,661	455
Stave Bolts, cords	7	7
Brown Sugar, lbs.	19,707	613
Canal Boats, No.	7	1,657
Woollen Cloth, yards	14	14
Buffalo Robes	2	20
Saddlery, harness	—	49
Fur Skins, undres. lbs.	1,141	123
Potatoes, bush.	112	36
Bees-wax, lbs	124	13
Ploughs, No.	2	19
Horns, tons	4	49
Gun Stocks	18	3
Steam Boiler	1	412
Sizing Scraps, cwt.	61	76
Wagon Spokes	3,000	18
Scow Boats	2	513
Flax Seed, bush	40	31
Manufactured Hair	3	3
Beans, bush.	3	8
Blankets	2	3
Manufactured Cotton.	—	17
Castings, pounds	250	9
Manufactured Iron.	800	92
Total value		$392,719

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BY CANAL.

Statement of Property first cleared at the Collector's office at Buffalo, on the Erie Canal, during the year 1853. showing the quantity and average value of each article, and also the whole amount of Tolls received at that office on boats, passengers, and each article of property, during the same period :—

THE FOREST.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Fur and Peltry	230,623	$230,623

Product of Wood.

	Quantity.	Value.
Boards & Scantling	61,885,663	1,237,713
Shingles	1,983	5,453
Timber, c. ft.	41,688	6,253
Staves, lbs.	76,066,068	228,199
Ashes, Pot and Pearl.	13,216	370,148
Total tons.	145,017	$2,078,389

AGRICULTURE.

Product of Animals.

	Quantity.	Value.
Pork, bbls	86,085	1,377,360
Beef	49,346	468,788
Bacon, lbs.	15,474,367	1,392,693
Cheese	2,055,737	205,573
Butter.	739,192	118,271
Lard, Tallow & L. Oil	8,759,456	875,946
Wool	4,262,356	1,704,942
Hides	978,211	88,039
Product of Animals	88,051	$6,231,612

Vegetable Food.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Flour, bbls	658,364	3,621,003
Wheat, bush	4,958,8185	$,950,581
Rye	59,727	58,754
Corn	3,118,691	1,933,588
Cornmeal, bbls	2,378	8,323
Barley, bush	247,233	160,701
Oats	1,163,599	465,440
Bran and Ship Stuffs.	645,651	6,457
Peas and Beans	13,007	16,259
Potatoes	128	77
Dried Fruit, lbs	83,020	11,622
Vegetable food, tons	334,434	$12,237,805

All other Agricultural Products.

	Quantity.	Value.
Unmanuf. Tobacco, lbs	3,391,133	169,557
Hemp	676,317	47,342
Clover and Grass Seed	1,543,509	108,045
Flax Seed	1,274,611	25,496
Hops	1,366	546
Total tons	375,930	$18,810,403

MANUFACTURES.

	Quantity.	Value.
Domestic Sp'ts, galls	1,827,711	438,651
Oil Meal & Cake, lbs	2,192,806	21,928
Leather	678,461	217,114
Furniture	332,535	39,905
Bar and Pig Lead	52,996	4,240

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Pig Iron	321,920	$6,438
Bloom and Bar Iron	231,644	9,766
Castings and Iron Ware	111,482	44,59
Domestic Salt	109,680	877
Total tons	8,417	$742,878

MERCHANDISE.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Sugar, lbs	27,553	$1,929
Molasses	9,082	318
Coffee	2,354	283
Nails, Spikes and Horse Shoes	37,420	1,871
Iron and Steel	290,515	20,336
Railroad Iron	695,954	20,879
Flint Enamel, Crockery and Glassware	422,236	29,556
All other merchandise	1,299,292	$91,150
Total tons	1,393	166,322

OTHER ARTICLES.

	Quantity.	Value.
Live Cattle, Hogs and Sheep	6,880	344
Stone, Lime and Clay	4,556,761	9,113
Gypsum	550	6
Mineral Coal	20,545,681	51,364
Copper Ore	1,156,868	300,783
Sundries	9,056,076	492,804
Tons	18,061	$854,416
Total tons	548,818	22,652,408
Total tolls	$695,364 71	

Statement of Property left at Buffalo, going to Western States and Canada, on the Erie Canal, of which was left between that place and the Collector's office next in order on the Canal; showing the quantity and average value of each article, during the year 1853 :—

THE FOREST.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Fur and Peltry	1,206	$1,206
Product of Wood.		
Boards and Scantling	3,658,715	73,174
Shingles	287	789
Timber	1,151,356	172,703
Staves	40,166	121
Wood	34,517	86,293
Total tons	125,830	$334,286

AGRICULTURE.

Product of Animals.

	Quantity.	Value.
Pork	3,818	61,088
Beef	6	57
Bacon	965	87
Cheese	1,601	160
Lard, Tallow & L. Oil	12,586	1,259
Wool	34,047	13,618
Hides	1,092,120	218,244
Tons	1,182	$294,513

Vegetable Food.

	Quantity.	Value.
Flour	43,751	250,631
Rye.	345	311
Corn	11,281	6,994
Cornmeal	8,000	28,000
Barley	2,773	1,602
Oats	45	8
Bran and Ship Stuffs	395,517	3,955
Peas and Beans	5,044	6,305
Potatoes	37,984	22,790
Dried Fruit	214,373	30,013
Tons	7,595	$450,819

All other Agricultural Products.

Description.	Quantity.	Value.
Cotton	505	51
Unmanufact'd Tobacco	4,639	232
Flaxseed	1,380	28
Hops	128,429	$51,371
Tons	67.	51,682
Tot al tons	8,844	687,014

MANUFACTURES.

	Quantity.	Value.
Domestic Spirits	10,990	2,638
Oil-Meal and Cake	21,911	219
Leather	1,549,044	495,694
Furniture	3,657,133	438,856
Bar and Pig Lead	21,636	1,731
Pig Iron	18,763,460	275,269
Bloom and Bar Iron	1,639,622	67,985
Castings and Iron Ware	27,687,945	1,107,917
Domestic Cottons	1,031,459	371,326
Domestic Salt	59,205,314	473,643
Foreign Salt	122,160	1,221
Total	54,424	$3,236,499

MERCHANDISE.

	Quantity.	Value.
Sugar	22,336,618	1,564,963
Molasses	15,480,124	541,804
Coffee	9,827,942	1,179,353
Nails, Spikes, etc.	7,206,847	360,343
Iron and Steel	18,669,738	1,306,881
Railroad Iron	144,985,834	4,349,576
Crockery & Glass-ware	12,313,259	861,936
All other mdse.	121,929,535	48,771,822
Total tons	176,383	$58,936,678

OTHER ARTICLES.

	Quantity.	Value.
Live Cattle, Hogs & Sheep	12,300	615
Stone, Lime & Clay	83,373,256	166,746
Gypsum	471,106	4,711
Mineral Coal	46,626,510	116 567
Sundries	16,128,363	1,417,625
Tons	73,305	$1,417,625
Total tons	438,786	$64,612,102

Art. X.—VITAL STATISTICS—THE CARLISLE TABLE.

In the *Necrology* for February, 1851, is contained the name of Joshua Milne, Actuary of the Sun Life Assurance Society of London, and author of the celebrated Carlisle Table of Mortality. He died at the advanced age of seventy-eight, after a long life successfully devoted to mercantile and scientific pursuits.

It would now be impossible to define the vast influence of this table in commercial transactions, the immense amounts of money invested under the guidance of its proportions, or the increased facilities created for unfolding the true system of vital statistics and population. The skill and full research displayed in its preparation rapidly gained public confidence, till, incorporated into physiological science, the name of the Carlisle Table has become familiar as household words wherever the English language is spoken. The author's researches in the statistics of life will form an imperishable monument to his memory.

We refer to the labors of Mr. Milne more especially for the purpose of inviting attention to the marked improvements which his analysis of "the Probabilities and the Expectation of life, and the construction of Tables of Mortality," brings to medical statistics, and to political economy.

For the present, passing over the seeming confusion produced by frequent removals from one part of the country to another, and by a vast foreign emigration, it has been found that mere "bills of mortality" are of limited value to vital statistics. They may serve to show that one year is more salubrious than another, but, for the more important uses, are wholly inadequate. Death is the great law of nature—a matter of course in every population. It is only when the record of deaths, with their ages, is accompanied by the corresponding numbers of the living, that the true relation of one to the other can be properly traced. The one term is as requisite for comparison as the other, and the attempt to reason from either alone has led into frequent and grave errors.

The Carlisle Table was published in 1815, and from its exhibiting greater expectations of life than the old Northampton Table, many have supposed that the length of life had increased during the interval. This inference would be admissible had the Northampton Table been constructed from the proper data, which was far from being the case. The author, Dr. Price, (his valuable services are worthy of remembrance,) made use of the "genuine" bills of mortality for Northampton; but he falsely assumed that the population had been stationary during the century previous, whereas it is now known that it had increased during the whole period. In some one of the valuable papers published by the English Registrar, the mistake is clearly examined, and a true table given, showing what the values would have approximated to had the Northampton Table been rightly constructed. For example, at the age of twenty-five, the expectation of life by the old table is a small fraction short of thirty-one years, and by the true table it is a fraction over thirty-six years. At the same age, the reversion of one hundred dollars, payable at death, has for its present value $45 20 by the old Northampton Table, and $37 96 by the true Northampton Table. So manifest are the inaccuracies of the old table that it can no longer be referred to as authority, or quoted by the side of the Carlisle, the English Life, and other approved tables.

Among the obstacles which have lain in the very threshold of the research of the true law of life, is the diversity of views with which its every-day phenomena are regarded. A person experiencing the loss of near relatives, or seeing funeral processions pass to the cemetery more frequent than usual, will receive an impression of the unhealthfulness of the season; while another person, engrossed in business, will hold to the opposite opinion, and affirm that there is no "prevailing malady." Differences of opinion likewise prevail among physicians. The tide of life seems, as it were, to ebb and flow with atmospheric vicissitudes; at one time oppressed with heat, at another suffering from cold, or exposed in the depth of summer to contagion, when marshes are dried, and the decay of vegetable matter and infusoria and animalculæ fill the air with miasmata.

Another cause of the slow progress of vital statistics is the periodical visitation of epidemics, which swell the mortality of particular years to an irregular or extraordinary amount. The recent prevalence of Asiatic cholera in 1849 and '50 was of this kind, when many places in the United States were decimated with great fatality, though its ravages chiefly fell on those of intemperate habits, the dwellers in damp cellars and filthy tenements, and consequently were, in a considerable degree, preventible. In all cities where registers of mortality have been kept through a series of years, remarkable variations are exhibited. Thus, in 1835, the number of deaths in Charleston was 664; during the next year 392 died of cholera, and the annual aggregate rose to 1,172; while in ordinary seasons the annual deaths have been near 600 in a population of 30,000. In the year 1850 there were 856 deaths, the population having increased to 43,000 inhabitants.

But though many circumstances would seem to veil the phenomena of life in mystery, yet patient and continuous investigation has discovered a commanding point of view, from which the whole is reduced to system and order. We refer to the system of Life Tables, of which the author of the Carlisle Table, among others, was "the very opener and intelligencer." The unequal distribution of old and young lives, and the varying increase of population, make common processes generally èrroneous. The method of "life tables," founded upon a large mass of population, corrects for these inequalities, and presents a true type of vitality,—"the last result of all the causes, almost infinitely complicated, that have any influence upon the condition of the people."

We have not here space to describe the interesting applications of the method of life tables to the population of Great Britain, Sweden, and Germany, and in educing "les lois de la population et de la mortalité en France," which may be said to have more than tripled the value of the national census. It is too evident to need remark that this field of research in America has been neglected, and demands more comprehensive measures. Too long in ignorance of the laws of life prevailing among us, our medical writers, our life insurance societies and annuitants, have been dependent on the efforts of foreign governments, or foreign individuals.

To return to the Carlisle Table, the view of an eminent writer in the Reports of the English Registrar, several years since, will possess some interest:—"I avail myself of this opportunity to pay my humble tribute to the framers of the Carlisle Table; to Dr. Heysham, who collected the facts with so much care, and to Mr. Milne, who cast those facts into a scientific form, and applied them so judiciously to the purposes of life insurance. A good deal has latterly been written about the law of copyright, and the remuneration of writers on popular subjects. Here is a case of a peculiar kind: A private person publishes an original work, really evincing as much genius and the result of as much labor as enter into the construction of twenty or thirty popular volumes. He has to publish it at his own risk, for the booksellers know that the sale will be limited, and the returns slow. But the Tables of the Values of Annuities, and the calculations which it contains, are not only of importance in a scientific point of view, but may be made, and actually are made, the basis of extensive monetary transactions, in the advantages of which the author has not the slightest legal share. Is this just? Is it encouraging to men of Mr. Milne's candor, integrity, and liberality, who conceal nothing, but give the world the fruits of their long studies, at almost a certainty of pecuniary loss? It would be well, perhaps, if the directors of some of the assurance societies, who have men of the strictest honor and the nicest sense of justice among their numbers, would some fine day ask themselves, how much they are indebted to the author of the *Carlisle* Table."

In conclusion, a brief notice of the original data of the Carlisle Table will not be inappropriate. It has been supposed that this table represented only a population of less than ten thousand persons; but the weight of its values will be found, on examination, to be much greater. The total deaths employed were those which happened in the city of Carlisle during the nine years from 1779 to 1787, amounting to 1,840 in number. The average population during the same time was 8,177, which, repeated nine times to correspond with the number of years, gives 73,593; and this, increased by the deaths, will amount to an aggregate of upwards of 75,000 observations. And thus, except that the number of deaths has been rendered more accurate by including nine years' experience, the reliance due to the Carlisle Table is nearly equivalent to that of a table founded on a census of 75,000 persons, of diversified occupations and localities, during a single year.

Art. XI.—THE PACIFIC RAILROAD.

[UNDER another head in the present number of the REVIEW, we shall introduce some particulars of the charter granted by the State of Texas to the Pacific Railroad. The route proposed for this road we believe to be altogether the most favorable presented to the country, and have no doubt, under the great inducements offered, of its eventual success. The labors of Gen. Rusk in procuring this charter entitle him to the gratitude of the country. The present efficient head of the War Department has labored assiduously in directing the various surveys ordered by Congress, and to his zeal and energy too much praise cannot possibly be awarded.

The paper which follows was prepared for the REVIEW, and we therefore publish it, promising to follow it up with another which shall develop in detail the advantages of the *Southern route.*]

He must be possessed of remarkable genius who will undertake to deduce, from the store of published arguments and *ex parte* testimony, on the subject of a Pacific Railroad, material for a candid and unbiased judgment, which shall justly favor no one scheme more than another. The task would prove herculean, and ordinary intelligence and capacity are incompetent to achieve it. But this ought to constitute no reason why the subject should be abandoned. The difficulty, on the contrary, should be a stimulant to more extended inquiry; for whether the reader is enabled or not to subscribe to any particular project of improvement, in this connection, to the rejection of all others, every item of information collected and added to the general fund is so much contributed towards aiding public opinion.

Exploration has convinced every one that there are several ways of connecting the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific by ordinary railway. The obstacle to be surmounted is, not the location of a route, but what route to choose of the number already located; not the question of practicability, but the combined one of availability and expediency. None will doubt the utility of the contemplated measure; but all may very justly find exception to favoring a monopoly, or determining a line that shall contribute mainly to the benefit of a section.

The chief difficulty, therefore, which besets the proposition is the reconciling of conflicting interests, and adapting preferred claims to a general emergency. It is obvious that but one, *if* that one, railroad will be constructed between the Atlantic and Pacific across this portion of the continent for a generation, perhaps a century; but it is equally clear to the reason that if once such a trunk road is opened, lateral off-shoots from it will ramify the country in all directions, and form a complete iron net-work from shore to shore of the two great oceans. Hence, indeed, to the thinking of some, it matters little where the termini shall be, or through what regions of territory the line shall pass; but all are not so easily satisfied, especially those States remoter from the immediate route than others, and whose wants and productive importance would seem to declare them first entitled to consideration. Thus the question remains unsettled, while every day reveals additional necessities for the construction of the road, and rebukes the nation for wasteful delay.

Meanwhile, individual interest improves the opportunity of doing what it can towards forwarding its own views. It associates itself into a company, and casts about for means and appliances to accomplish the stupendous undertaking. It virtually attempts to take out of the hands of the government the consummation of the gigantic scheme; and under the name, style, or title of "the Northern Pacific," the "Central Atlantic and Pacific," or the "Southern Pacific and Mississippi" Railroad Company, boldly offers to do the work which the nation is too timid or too negligent to engage in, or which furnishes politicians but too dangerous a platform, wherever to risk a legislative career. Every company, so organized, aims to benefit particular cities, for the members of the organization are, to all intents and purposes, but the local representatives of such cities or corporations. Hence, when we speak of a certain company, we should never lose sight of the towns along the line of its proposed improvement; for in them we shall surely find houses or lands, mills or factories, stores or storehouses, which are monuments of the enterprise of the towns, but more of the individual owners who associate together for the purpose of increasing the value of their property, and enlarging their facilities for getting to market, all under the cloak of contributing to the general weal.

Therefore, we repeat, it is no easy task to collect altogether reliable data from the numerous publications of the day, on the feasibility of a Pacific Railroad, and on the fairness and impartiality of this testimony give an unqualified preference for any single project over another. These publications emanate from parties locally attached, or locally interested; and whatever comes from them can only be received with many grains of allowance and distrust.

We have lying before us a volume entitled "Railroad to the Pacific; Northern Route: Its General Character, Relative Merits, &c. By Edwin F. Johnson, C. E. Second edition. New-York: Railroad Journal Job Printing Office, 1854." Any one, on reading the title-page, will hazard the opinion that this work treats of the Northern route as far superior in every respect to any of the more Southern routes, and that if New-York city is not in so many words presented as the Atlantic terminus of the projected road, Chicago is; for while it is an ascertained fact that the Northern Company are capitalists, mostly resident in these two cities, it is a fact quite as significant that they hold large tracts of domain and other property immediately on or contiguous to the line. The volume before us is, indeed, a one-sided view of the Pacific Railroad question; but the author states his grounds at the outset; and we are, therefore, prepared to meet in him an open-handed antagonist.

Mr. Johnson says that no points on the Pacific are so eligible for the Western terminus of the projected road as San Diego and San Francisco, in California, the Columbia River in Oregon, and a point connected with the Straits of Juan de Fuca, in the Territory of Washington. He thinks the paramount question that should influence a decision in selecting, not only the termini, but the route itself, beyond that of domestic expediency, is, the securing of the carrying trade between the ports of the Eastern Seas and the Atlantic American ports. He arrives at the conclusion that Shanghai will ultimately become the commercial metropolis of the Eastern hemisphere, and the dispensatory of the wealth of the Orient. In view of this, to him settled fact, the point most expedient to select on the Pacific coast should be, as nearly as possible, directly opposite Shanghai, on the American Continent; and that point he shows to be the Straits of Juan de Fuca. Mr. Johnson does not for a moment permit himself to descend the Atlantic coast towards Charleston, Memphis, Savannah, or New-Orleans; for in that case he would necessarily be compelled to abandon the Straits position for another terminus lower down on the Pacific side. He rests every proposition on the assumption that New-York is already marked out by nature for the Atlantic terminus. "The prominent points," he says, "or those which are most favored in respect to climate, and which command most of the capital of the country, and within which is concentrated the greatest amount of commercial and manufacturing interest, are Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. Of these New-York is decidedly the first, and Philadelphia, only eighty miles distant from it in a direct line, the second." If we were criticising Mr. Johnson's book, instead of compressing from it material for a paper, we should say that if New-York had little else to recommend it as the Atlantic terminus than its wealth and manufacturing capital, those considerations should have, or ought to have, but slight weight with the community. An argument put forth on such a basis would depend on the weakest of all support.

The following is Mr. Johnson's general description of the route:

> From New-York city to this point, (the Straits,) the shortest and most direct line (which is indicated by the arc of a great circle of the earth connecting the two) passes considerably to the north of the forty-ninth degree of north latitude, where the latter meets the Pacific, and hence the Straits of Juan de Fuca, the most northern of the places named on our Pacific coast, are situated nearest to the direct line to China, within the limits of the United States, and are, in this particular, the most suitable for the Western terminus of the proposed railroad. In proceeding from New-York city to the Straits of de Fuca, the position of the great lakes and of the international boundary make it necessary to deflect the line so far to the south as to pass the southern extremity of Lake Michigan. The city of Chicago, which is the nearest port of any magnitude to that portion of the lake, becomes, therefore, a point in the proposed route. This city is also indicated as a suitable point on the line of the proposed road, from its probable future relation to the internal commerce of the United States. Its position at the southwestern limit of the unrivalled navigation of the great lakes, and the outlets therefrom to the Atlantic, and the vast and very fertile region commercially dependent upon it at the West, a region which is rapidly filling up with a population unsurpassed for intelligence and enterprise, give assurance of its becoming ultimately the greatest of the very large and flourishing inland cities of our Union, and as such would justify a departure, to a certain extent, from the direct course of the proposed road, even if there were no other reasons such as have already been stated for such a deviation.
>
> From the city of Chicago lines of railroad, by very direct routes, are either already built, or in a course of construction, leading to all the prominent cities named, and others on the Atlantic seaboard, and hence there is no occasion for any further notice of this portion of the route.
>
> The city of Chicago is distant from the Straits of De Fuca, in a direct line, 1,752 miles, as computed from the latitudes and longitudes of the two places. This line is represented upon the accompanying map, and appears as a curved line crossing the Missouri River in latitude 46° N. nearly, and passing to the north of the Great Falls on that river.
>
> In examining the position of this line, it will be seen that a principal obstacle to the attainment of a direct route for a railroad between the points

named, is the prolongation, to the north and east, of the chain of mountains known as the Wind River or Black Mountains, which extend from near the South Pass of the Rocky Mountains northeasterly between the Yellow Stone and Missouri Rivers, to near the latitude of 48° N., and thus cause the great bend in the direction of the latter river in its course to the ocean in the latitude named.

There are other obstacles which are also of a serious character on the direct course. These are the crossings of the Mississippi, Missouri, and Yellow Stone Rivers, where they are navigated by large boats; the range of mountains between the Yellow Stone and Upper Missouri, and the more broken and unfavorable character of the surface generally from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains. These latter, which lie at the sources of the Missouri, present, as will be seen hereafter, under a slight deviation from a direct course, no very serious obstacle to the passage of a railroad.

The chain of Wind River and Yellow Stone Mountains, and the other principal obstacles named, are all entirely avoided by carrying the line direct from Chicago to the Great Bend of the Missouri above mentioned; a departure from the direct course which will not very much increase the distance, and which is fully compensated for, irrespective of its superiority from the circumstances named, by the greater facilities which the country affords for the construction of a railroad, in the supply of timber and other materials, and in the opportunity afforded for a connection by a branch railroad with the west end of Lake Superior, and through that with the chain of inland waters of which that lake forms a part.

From the Great Bend of the Missouri the route proposed is along the northern side of that river to one of several passes which are known to exist between its sources and those of the Flathead, or Clark's branch of the Columbia River; and thence along the valley of Clark's river, and of the Columbia, to some point in the vicinity of Fort Okanagan. Here the proposed route leaves the Columbia, and after surmounting the elevated ground which forms the northern extremity of the Cascade or President's range of mountains, terminates at the desired point on the Pacific.

To return to the Rocky Mountains. These mountains, which separate the waters of the Atlantic from the Pacific, do not, at the place proposed for crossing them, possess the formidable character as mountain barriers which pertain to them in other places. They are here very much reduced in height, and are penetrated by passes or defiles which are evidently very feasible for a railroad.

The Rocky Mountains, instead of being a lofty chain of uniform or nearly uniform elevation, extending from the Mexican Andes northward to the Arctic Seas, appear, upon examination, to be arranged in a series of groups, similar, although on a very much larger scale, to the White Mountains of New-Hampshire, or the Adirondacks of New-York. In elevation, their highest peaks within the limits of the United States are equalled, if not surpassed, by those of another and parallel range lying nearer to the Pacific, and known as the Sierra Nevada and Cascade or President's range of mountains.

Within the limits of the United States are two very marked depressions in the range of the Rocky Mountains. One where the sources of the river Gila approach the waters of the Rio Grande Del Norte, near the Mexican boundary, the other at the place already named between the sources of the Missouri and the Columbia.

Between these is an extended group or series of mountains, varying in height at different points, and divided by passes into lesser groups, from whose slopes flow the waters of the Columbia, the Colorado, the Rio Grande Del Norte, and the Missouri and Mississippi. The mountains which compose this immense group are situated upon a plain elevated on their southern and eastern side 4,000 to 5,000 feet above the level of the sea; and on their northern and western side from 3,000 to 4,000 feet above the same level.

The Mount Washington, of the northern section of this group, is Fremont's Peak, near the South Pass, so called, rising to the height, according to the measurement of the explorer, from whom it takes its name, of 13,570 feet above the ocean level. This and the three Tetons, and the three Buttes, are the most noted points in this portion of the series, all of them being visible to travellers by the South Pass for some distance along their route.

From these elevated points proceed ranges in various directions: the Bear Mountains to the south; the Green River Mountains, forming the main range or Rocky Mountains proper, to the southeast; the Wind River and Black Mountain chain to the northeast; the Salmon River Mountains to the west; the Kooskootskie Mountains to the northwest, and the continuation northerly of the main range to the place of general depression, which is in a line nearly with the valleys of the Upper Missouri, and Clark's branch of the Columbia—a depression which may be considered as extending through three or four degrees of latitude, since within these limits no less than five passes are known to exist, from such partial explorations as have thus far been made.

In proceeding north beyond the latitude of forty-nine or fifty degrees, the mountain chain again rises, attaining its highest elevation in the Caledonia group, in British North America, in latitude fifty-two or fifty-four degrees north, near which are found the lofty peaks of Mount Hooker and Mount Brown, the former 15,700 feet, and the latter 16,000 feet above the level of the sea. Gathered about these, or issuing from them, are other peaks and ranges forming the series or group from whence flow the waters of the north branch of the Columbia and Fraser's River on the west, McKenzie's River on the north, and Peace River and the Saskatshawan on the east.

The length of the route as above described, from the city of Chicago to the Pacific, is estimated as follows, viz.:—

In Illinois	70	miles.
Wisconsin	290	"
Minnesota	620	"
Missouri (N. W.) Territory	420	"
Washington "	560	"
Total	1,960	"

Of this distance, nine hundred and ninety miles, or about one half of the whole, are embraced under existing acts of incorporation, granted by the several States and Territories for the construction of a railroad on the proposed route, as follows:

The portion in Illinois is included in the charter of the "*Illinois and Wisconsin Railroad Company.*" That of Wisconsin in the charter of the "*Rock River Valley Union Railroad Company;*" and that through Minnesota in the charter of the "*Minnesota Western Railroad Company.*"

The portion of the line in Illinois is located and under contract. Forty miles of it are graded, and twenty-five miles of track have been laid from Chicago west, and a considerable expenditure has been made for equipments. The Company will soon commence the business of transportation, and the road will be completed to the Wisconsin line by the first day of July next.

Of the portion in Wisconsin, fifty-five miles are located and under contract, and the grading is in progress at various points. This portion passes through Janesville in the Rock River Valley, the principal town in the interior of the State, and extends to Madison, the capital of the State. This portion will also be completed by the first day of July next.

It may not be improper to state here that the same Company are authorized to construct a branch from Janesville northerly along the Rock River Valley to Lake Superior. This branch is now under contract, and building to Fond du Lac, on the Winnebago Lake, eighty-six miles from Janesville. Forty miles of it are graded, and the track laid for half that distance, and transportation has already been commenced upon it.

This branch, when completed, will extend to the copper region of Lake Superior, and connect with the navigation of that lake, and as it passes through a rich and productive portion of the State, will eventually do a large business.

From Madison, on the main line northwesterly, surveys have only been carried a short distance beyond the Wisconsin River. For the remaining distance to the Minnesota line, the ground has not yet been instrumentally examined with a view to the location of a railroad. Measurements for other purposes have, however, been made, sufficient to show its general character, and that two routes, at least, exist, either of which are very favorable for the purpose.

In Minnesota, a survey or reconnoissance has been instituted under the late Act of Congress, making an appropriation for the exploration of several routes for the Pacific road. These surveys, for the line in question, are under the direction of Governor Stevens, of the new territory of Washington, who will continue his reconnoissance to the Pacific, upon the route of the proposed road.

The charter in Minnesota is a very liberal one. It secures to the Company all lands which may be granted by Congress in aid of the road within the limits of the territory, without further action on the part of the government of the territory, and is held by the same parties who are engaged in constructing the lines in Illinois and Wisconsin.

The Companies in the two latter States have entered into an agreement, authorized by their respective charters, to consolidate and bring them under one common management, and a similar arrangement is to be entered into with the Company in Minnesota as soon as an organization is effected in that territory.

The road in Illinois and Wisconsin is being built with the wide gauge of six feet, a very proper gauge for a road of the character of the one in question. Arrangements for harbor accommodations and necessary depot grounds in the city of Chicago, and at the west end of Lake Superior, and elsewhere, have been made, and are on a scale commensurate with the importance and magnitude of the work.

The population along and near to the located portion is already large, and is very rapidly increasing. Irrespective of the continuation to the Pacific, the importance of the several lines named in Illinois, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, to accommodate the region of country lying west of the great lakes, is such as to place them in the very first class of main trunk roads.

The cost of the road Mr. Johnson estimates as follows:—

The portion of the line embraced in the States of Illinois and Wisconsin, 70 miles in one, and 290 miles in the other, being in a course of construction, will not be included in this estimate.

This portion, completed for a single track, and equipped ready for use, will probably cost not far from ten millions of dollars.

The length of the remaining portion from the west line of Wisconsin to the Pacific, as estimated, is 1,600 miles.

The cost of this. for a single track complete, with the requisite turnouts, the iron rails weighing 100 lbs. per yard, with all the necessary buildings and equipments, is estimated as follows :—

From the Wisconsin line to Red River, the point of divergence of the branch to Lake Superior, 220 miles, at $40,000	$8,800,000
From Red River to the Great Falls of the Missouri, over the Missouri plains, the surface being very favorable, and distance 720 miles, at $45,000	32,400,000
From the Great Falls of the Missouri to Okanagan River, over ground more difficult of construction and access, 530 miles, at $60,000	31,800,000
From Okanagan to the Pacific, including the passage of the Cascade Mountains, 120 miles, at $70,000	8,400,000
Add cost of branch to Lake Superior, 220 miles, at $40,000	8,800,000
	$90,200,000
Contingencies, add	9,800,000
Total for 1,820 miles	$100,000,000

equal to $55,000 per mile average.

The branch to Lake Superior is supposed to diverge from the main line at the Red River; thence across the *Hauteurs des terres* to the Mississippi, at the mouth of Crow-wing River; thence in the vicinity of the Mississippi River to where it bends to the north; thence passing near Sandy Lake to a terminus at the west end of Lake Superior, where its elevation above the sea is supposed to be about 630 feet.

So favorable is the surface of the country generally along the proposed Northern route to the Pacific, that a road of the same character, if located east of the Mississippi, could be built and equipped complete, at a cost not exceeding $40,000 per mile. The addition to this amount of upwards of thirty per cent. is believed to be sufficient to cover the extra cost of transportation of materials and provisions, and the other disadvantages incident to the construction of the road through a country, the most of which is in a state of nature, having no other facilities of intercommunication than are presented by the navigable waters of the Mississippi, Missouri, and Columbia, facilities which are indeed of very great importance, and which will contribute largely to diminish the cost of the road on the route in question.

The actual cost of the road will depend very much upon the time occupied in its construction. The revenue to be derived from it will be limited until the entire line is completed. It will be an object therefore to accomplish it in the shortest time possible consistent with a due regard to its cost. If immediately commenced and prosecuted with abundant means, it is not probable that it can be accomplished in less than from ten to twelve years, delays caused by negotiations with the Indian tribes not included. During this period, if we may judge from the past, the increase in the population of the United States will not be less than ten millions, a large portion of which increase will undoubtedly be found located on and near the line of the proposed road; so that by the time it is completed, it will have a way business of some amount which will thenceforward be constantly augmenting, and form ultimately a prominent item in the revenue of the road.

We do not deem it worth while to follow up the objections that have been urged in regard to the obstructions by snows in this route. As might be expected, Mr. Johnson undertakes to defend the proposed route from any serious inconvenience in this respect; and we have no doubt his proofs are quite as convincing as any that have hitherto been adduced to the same end. It is more gratifying, and, indeed, more satisfactory, to find him presenting interesting details of the geological and geographical features of the country along the projected line, showing the vast stores of timber and minerals on which the future States of the Northwest will have as much need to rely hereafter as on the noble rivers and rich soils which invite to the settlement of the territories.

The subject of a Pacific Railroad has taken deep hold on the popular mind, and it will not rest contented until something more practicable than mere survey reports and memoirs grow out of public or private enterprise. It matters little what may be the motives which actuate parties in proposing any particular route; the wants of the age make a road necessary, and public or private munificence will ultimately construct it. It is at best a chance which points shall be the real termini, although ostensibly points may be determined by the surveyor's chain and the contractor's dictum. Commerce is king, and erects its own monuments—pursues its own route.

The Secretary of War has sent to the United States Senate a document containing the reports of the different parties who have been in the field the past season making surveys and explorations of the proposed routes for a railroad to the Pacific.

The following is a summary of the report made by Governor Stevens, of the *Northern* route:—

Accompanying Governor Stevens' report, is a map sketch on a scale of $\frac{1}{600000}$ of the route of the proposed road from St. Paul to the Shayenne River, and Governor Stevens is "confident no grade will be found of more than twenty feet per mile," and "cost without equipment will not exceed $20,000 per mile."

Another map sketch is given on a scale of $\frac{1}{1200000}$ from St. Paul to Fort Union. He says the "inclosed sketch of a railroad route is certainly practicable at a cost not probably exceeding $40,000 per mile. * * * The great key points of the country are the valley of the Moose River, and the region of the Bois de Sioux." No grade is mentioned, nor profiles given, of any portion of the route.

West of Fort Union no sketches of the country have been received. The rivers along the route are reported as being very much out of place on the maps, and indeed it is impossible to trace the route definitely upon ordinary maps. No astronomical positions are given.

The nature and substance of the results obtained west of Fort Union, so far as reported, are as follows:

At Fort Benton.—Governor Stevens says, "up to this point we have found the country entirely practicable. Whichever pass in the mountains is decided upon, the Milk River Valley will furnish a good approach."

At St. Mary's Valley,—He reports that two approaches to Cabot's Pass were examined, both requiring a tunnel, "not exceeding a mile in length," and a grade that will not "probably exceed forty or forty-five feet per mile."

To the West, "the descent down the Hell-gate River was mostly through an open valley, till the Hell-gate passage is reached, where the river winds in a narrow defile, requiring for a railroad expensive sustaining walls and embankments, and probably some small tunnels to avoid short curves." "It can be turned by tunnelling a marble mountain to the south of it, or by crossing over from a tributary of the Hell-gate in the open valley of the pass to the valley of the river Jocko, one of the principal southern tributaries of Clarke's fork." This was explored, and a barometer profile taken; "in the absence of it, can only state it will probably furnish a practicable mode of avoiding the Hell-gate defile."

Cabot's Pass is reported as being "nearly 3,000 feet below the South Pass," and "a much better one, both in summer and winter." A small party examined a Pass in the Rocky Mountains south of Cabot's Pass, and was fitted out to examine the Marias Pass to the north of it.

The Bitter Root range, west of St. Mary's Valley, are said to be impracticable.

At Olympia, Dec. 5.—Governor Stevens reports that a route was surveyed over the Cœur d'Eleine Mountains from St. Mary's to Fort Colville, but no barometer profile taken for want of an instrument. "It is probable" these mountains might be passed with a tunnel not exceeding "six, or perhaps four miles, without involving impracticable grades." Difficulties from snow "should be carefully investigated."

Lieutenant Donnelson surveyed the general line of Clarke's fork. Governor Stevens says he "reports the route from the debouche of the Hell-gate Pass to the banks of the Spokane" * * * as "practicable, involving no other difficulties than are usually met with in the Atlantic States, and that it will connect well with a route through the Marias Pass, should a practicable one be ascertained. The grass is generally good, there having been a scarcity only two nights."

The Columbia was explored from Fort Colville to the forty-ninth parallel. Captain McClellan explored the Cascade range as far north as the forty-ninth parallel, and his examinations were connected with the others under Governor Stevens.

Governor Stevens refers to Captain McClellan's examinations, and "I apprehend no difficulty whatever in the Sno-qual-me Pass to the passage of a railroad; and from information I have received from old residents, particularly from Mayor Goldsborough, a civil engineer who has carefully examined the country, it will be an easy matter to carry it to a good harbor on the sound."

According to Captain McClellan's report of September 18, the Sno-qual-me Pass "is at the head of the main Yakima," some thirty-five miles north of Mount Reginer. The lowest point of the divide is 3,543 feet above Vancouver. The descent to the east to Lake Katchelas, a distance in a direct line of about three and one-fourth miles, is 1,129 feet; beyond this "there is no difficulty in the construction of a road of any kind." He did not "proceed more than a few miles beyond the divide" to the West, but as far as he went, "the valley was narrow and the descent steep." He reports Nahches Pass as 4,966 feet above Vancouver, and not so favorable as the other. In both Passes the snow accumulates in the narrow valleys, probably 20 feet, and in the mountains five or six feet.

Owing to the lateness of the season, the survey was to be continued to Puget Sound by the line of the Columbia and Coulitz.

Governor Stevens does not mention any grade as the probable maximum from the summit of Cabot's Pass to Puget Sound. The extent of country adapted to cultivation, and the facilities for wood and water, are not particularly alluded to. At the date of Governor Stevens' last communication (December 5,) the finished drawings and estimates had not been made for any portion of the work. The explorations west of the Cascade range are not terminated. The reports of those sent to guage the snows had not been received, nor of the party left to finish the survey of the Missouri River, nor the one to run a line from St. Mary's to Fort Hall.

REPORT OF THE SURVEY OF WALKER'S AND THE NEIGHBORING PASSES.

Depot Camp, Pose Creek, Aug. 31, 1853.

I have just returned here from a twenty days' examination of the various passes of the Sierra Nevada, and give the results so far.

I started from this point, which is eight miles north of Kern River, and went through Walker's Pass, the northernmost point on the Sierra, where it is supposed possible to carry a railroad across. Then reascending to the summit of the pass, I wished to follow the backbone of the mountain, southwardly, till it joined the coast range; thus necessarily seeing every depression in the ridge. Having thus ascertained the lowest points, I then intended to ascertain if they were accessible from both bases. This plan I followed most successfully, and I have now a good knowledge of these mountains—am certain that no pass exists (within the above limits) that I have not examined—and am now prepared to commence a survey of the best of them.

I regret to say that the difficulty of crossing the mountains is much greater than I anticipated; but I think there is no doubt of the practicability. I have been through eight passes, most of which are very bad, and I will briefly describe some of them. You must understand, however, that my opinions here expressed may be modified, when I get a more accurate knowledge from surveys.

With this understanding, I will commence by saying, that *Walker's Pass is out of the question*. To reach this we ascend Kern River (properly the Potum-ko-la) for some fifty miles, where a branch comes in from the east. This we ascend, in a wide and gently ascending valley, for some twelve miles, when we leave it, cross the divide, and enter the plain or basin beyond. The difficulties are: 1st, ascending Kern River; 2d, ascending to the summit from the valley of the branch; 3d, descending to the basin.

1st. On Kern River high mountains come down abruptly on each side, forming a canon of five or six miles in length, impassable for mules, and probably for footmen, since there is no Indian trail through it—and these mountains cannot be turned. Hence, to go by Kern River, an immense deal of cutting, blasting, &c., would have to be done. Rock, granite. This river falls in the fifty miles, fifty feet to the mile on an average.

2d. The ascent to the summit for five miles is over 300 feet to the mile, and rugged rocky mountains on each side, cut up by precipitous ravines, prevent a winding course to gain distance.

3d. The descent from the summit to the basin is eight miles, and over 250 feet to the mile. The altitude of Walker's Pass is over 4,500 feet above the Tulare Valley, and over 5,000 above the sea. The basin is 2,500 feet above the valley.

Proceeding south, the next pass worthy of note is one never before passed through, so far as I can ascertain. The ascent from the basin is uniform, and not more than a hundred feet to the mile, arriving at the lowest point but one of the Sierra Nevada—3,100 feet above the Tulare Valley. A creek runs from the summit to the valley, but the descent for ten miles is 300 feet to the mile. Possibly, by winding in the hills, a more gradual descent could be found—still it would be difficult, and very expensive. Instead of following this creek we can follow along the crest of the mountain, on nearly a level for fifteen miles, and then descend nearly the whole vertical distance in three or four miles. If inclined plane, with stationary engines, have to be resorted to, this would be a good point.

Still further south there are two passes leading into the head of the Tulare Valley, at a place called Tejon. A wagon road passes through one, which is beginning to be known as the Tejon Pass, and it is the worst wagon road I ever saw. The pass fortunately presents some good features for a railroad. Two small streams run from near the summit—one into the basin, the other into the Tejon—but their sources are separated by a narrow divide over 1,500 feet high. I have great hope that a survey will show that should this ridge be tunnelled, the road can pass up one creek, through the tunnel, and down the other. The summit of the Tejon Pass is 4,500 feet above the Tulare Valley.

The other pass coming into the Tejon is called the Canada de las Uvas (grape ravine). In this a small brook descends into the Tejon, 1,400 feet in 4 miles, while the rest of the pass is of gentle ascent and descent. The summit is 3,100 feet above the Tulare Valley—the same height as that of the passes before mentioned. Two modes would naturally suggest themselves for making a road through this pass. One, a system of inclined planes, with stationary engines over the 4 miles above mentioned; a second, by following along the side hills. Before I express an opinion on these points, I must wait till a survey of the pass is made. I intend to leave here to-morrow for the Tejon, 25 miles distant, and shall run a line of levels through the Tejon Pass and the Canada de las Uvas; at the same time making an accurate sketch of the hills and ravines on each side. From the data thus obtained, I shall be able to give full information on the subject. So much for passes.

R. S. Williamson.

The little that was received from Captain Gunnison, previous to his massacre, is not favorable for the route he was commissioned to explore, which was what is termed Benton's route, by way of the Huerfano and the Coo-chi-to-pee Pass. The information furnished by him is altogether too meagre to be of any particular value.

The survey of the route upon the 35th parallel was intrusted to Lieut. Whipple. When last heard from, he was at the Zuni villages. We give his dispatch, though not very intelligibly, for want of a map of the route.

Camp No. 70, near Pueblo Zuni, Nov. 25.

Colonel:—I have the honor to inclose a geological and a pencilled sketch of a general profile of our route from Fort Smith to Rio del Norte. The vertical scale of the latter not being exaggerated, the minor deflections are unappreciable. However, it may serve, like the rough topographical sketches already sent, in charge of Senor Don Ambrosio Armijo, to guard against a total loss of our work, in case, by any accident, the notes we carry should be destroyed. By examination, you may perceive that no great obstacle is opposed to the construction of a railway along the route traversed by the wagons, the profile of which is given from barometric observations, taken at every point wherever occurred a change in grade. This profile is, however, intended merely as the basis for a reconnoissance upon which the profile of deflections for a better route may be projected. Several such deviations have been made, but not yet represented upon the profile: one through a level prairie south of the road, and extending nearly from the Poteau to the San Bois; another passes a slightly undulating country, from the head waters of Coal Creek to the waters of Boggy, leaving the Shawnee villages north. It is a question, also, whether the Valley of the Canadian should not be kept nearly the whole way to the mouth of Tummcari Creek, thus avoiding the ascent to the Llano estecado, and proceed to the Pecos, north of Anton Chico, where the canon is believed to be narrow enough to be spanned by a bridge. From Rio Pecos to the Valley of the Rio del Norte is, doubtless, the most expensive of the first division of our route. Still the ground is difficult only in comparison with that previously passed over. Two passes of the Rocky Mountains were examined; one leading by Rio Galisteo to the Pueblo de San Felipe, the other by Carmel Pass to Puebla de Isleta. The first makes a short deflection to the north, by which a blind man would never suspect the vicinity of a range of mountains. A branch of the Galisteo is encountered about 25 miles east of the mountain range, and makes a broad open valley, with a descent, unappreciable by the eye, to Rio del Norte. The Carmel Pass is more directly west, and its canon, with some slight cutting, will afford a good route. Debouching from the mountains, a wide arrayo, with a grade of about 50 or 60 feet to the mile, leads to Isleta. At these pueblos, San Felipe and Isleta, are found the two best crossings of the Rio del Norte. At both places the diluvium drift impinges upon each side of the river, affording natural abutments for a bridge. From the latter point the survey has been continued, with a sweep to the south, to ascend the Mesa, nearly 700 feet in height, which divides Rio del Norte from Rio Puerco. Thence we ascend Rio de Gallo to near its head waters, where parts the road leading to Fort Defiance. Sending a party to recónnoitre that route, we proceeded by the Canino del Obispo to our present camp, near the Zuni. Upon the route of the survey, towards the southern slope of the mountain, by a gradual ascent of about sixty feet to the mile, we arrived at the foot of the hill which forms the summit of the Sierra Madre. Here might be required a tunnel about a mile in length, which would reach a similar ravine upon the Pacific side, leading by a beautiful slope, not exceeding in any part 61 feet to the mile, three days journey to Zuni. The party which explored the northern pass reports much more favorably. The summit is said to have been passed unperceived, and a grade of 25 feet to the mile will conduct from Ojo Azul, which flows towards the Gulf of Mexico to Rio Puercò of the West, which, emptying into the Rio Colorado, seeks the Pacific Ocean. We are, therefore, now upon the Pacific waters, having found excellent passes through the range of Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Madre. Timber for the construction of a railroad is abundant, from the Choctaw nation to Walnut and Deer Creeks, also from Rio Pecos to Sandia Mountain, and in the Sierra Madre. For masonry, there is excellent material over the whole route. Coal is abundant in the Choctaw nation, on Rio Galisteo, in the Carmel canon, on Rio Puerco, and at Ojo de Gallow. Extensive beds of gypsum also occur in various localities. From the headquarters of the Washita, which approach within two or three miles of the Canadian, an excellent route for a railway extends east-southeast as far as that river was followed by us. Well-wooded valleys, flowing streams, fertile soil, and charming climate, all invite the emigrant thither. To pursue the stream to its mouth, and thence to New-Orleans, would, doubtless, form one of the main branches of a railway to California by way of the Canadian. The appearance of the country north of the Canadian, in the direction towards the western part of the Missouri, showed nothing to lead us to infer greater obstacles in the construction of a branch from the great bend of the Canadian to Springfield than we had found on our route. Indeed, our geologist, Mr. Marron, having previously paid particular attention to the geological character of that section of country, assures me that it is highly favorable for the object proposed. Without doubt, therefore, a main branch of this road would lead to St. Louis. Water, for camping purposes, on the whole route from Fort Smith to this place, has failed us but once. That was on the Sierra Madre, where water could be easily obtained by tanks, in others by aqueducts, while in a few places Artesian wells may be resorted to with greater advantage. To-morrow we proceed hence, taking a due west course, which we hope will lead us to the Pacific, in time to lay before Congress a more full report in February next.

In great haste, I remain, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,
A. W. WHIPPLE,
First Lieut. Corps Topographical Engineers.

Colonel J. J. ABERT.

Art. XII.—THE MARITIME CONFERENCE OF NATIONS AT BRUSSELS.

WITHOUT herald—without clamor—without attracting even ordinary attention—a convention assembled at Brussels last autumn to discuss a measure of peace, while the sovereigns of Europe were agitating the proposition of a congress for determining a similar question. But how different were the motives that prompted these convocations, and how much at variance were the objects to be achieved, though ostensibly urged by the same benevolent considerations! One was a convention, having in view, by a conference of sentiment, the improvement of one of the physical auxiliaries of commerce; the other was a congress, having in view, by a conference of sentiment, the improvement of one of the primary stimulants of commerce. One proposed to generalize knowledge, by putting in the hands of the mariner an instrument for avoiding shoals and hidden rocks, and for steering his vessel, in all kinds of weather, with the best advantage, and the least possible delay and danger; the other proposed no utilize knowledge, by teaching the mariner, not how to load a broadside with the wisest economy, and to reef a sail in the time of action, but how to convert navies into merchantmen, and marines into alert seamen. The latter, after much flourish and extravagant preparation, never met, never referred back to themselves the great question which they had agitated, namely, whether issues, involving wars and hostile demonstrations, should, in obedience to the requirements of the age, and in conformity with the interests of mankind, be settled by arbitrament, or still be determined by the custom of the sword. We find, not as a result, but as a consequence of the neglect, Europe convulsed with sanguinary throes. The first, without pomp and display, did meet, and did refer back to themselves the grave matters they held in trust, and the result we have embraced in a volume before us, entitled, "Explanations and Sailing Directions to accompany the Wind and Current Charts, &c., &c., by M. F. Maury, LL. D., Lieut. U. S. N., Washington, 1854."

The Belgian conference, although its transactions do not appear to have elicited that attention which they deserved, forms a feature in maritime connections, that must prove of as much benefit to science, as advantageous in effecting fraternal relations among all classes, whose affairs or interests are confined principally, or relate indirectly, to the hazards of the sea. Thus the moral weight of this conference, in laying the foundation of mutual interchange, in a matter that, in a greater or less degree, influences the political action and controls the civil progress of a nation, cannot be over-estimated. We may be inclined to see in it only a present evidence of good—a conventional reciprocity, by which one or two classss only are to derive partial benefit—underwriters, and that abstract element of government usually called the Head. But if we view the subject fairly, we will readily perceive that the operation of the system of interchange adopted does not stop here, nor that its influence will be circumscribed by the simple necessity or expediency of the hour. Its direct tendency is, to merge two powerful interests into one practical, paramount interest, thus imparting to the scheme all the force, vitality, and strength of three separate and distinct agents. It brings science into an embrace with wealth, and their affiliation has the common object of protecting property, spreading information, and concerting for the public weal.

The Brussels conference represented ten nations—the United States, England, France, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Russia, Sweden, Norway, and Portugal. It was understood that the representatives should meet and discuss whatever questions might be brought before them, without pledging the faith of their respective governments to confirm their proceedings; but there can be no doubt that there will be a general, if not a universal approval of their proceedings. The proposition originated on this side of the Atlantic, and Mr. Maury was judiciously chosen to represent the United States. The marks of distinguished favor conferred upon him by his associates in council, show the high esteem in which his opinions as a scientific scholar, and his deportment as a man, were held.

An improvement of the ordinary sea route between distant countries had long engaged the attention of commercial men, and both individuals and nations had profited by the advances which this science had made through a more correct knowledge of the prevailing winds and currents of the ocean. But experience had shown that this science, if it did not now stand fast, was at least greatly impeded by the want of a more extended co-operation in the acquirement of those facts which were necessary to lead to a more correct knowledge of the laws which govern the circulation of the atmosphere, and control the currents of the ocean; and that the subject could not receive ample justice, or even such a measure of it as was commensurate with the importance of its results, until all nations should concur in one general effort for its perfection. But, could that happy event be brought about, the navigator would learn with certainty how to count upon the winds and currents in his track, and to turn to the best advantage the experience of his predecessors.

Pondering the whole subject for years, Mr. Maury succeeded in vindicating, by practical experiments and severe tests, the accuracy of his deductions, which passed into confirmed theories, and finally became laws. The government was induced to patronize his attempts to interest other nations equally with our own in establishing something like a reciprocal system to meet the great wants of the navigator, in the particulars mentioned, and the Belgian conference was ultimately brought about.

What this conference effected may be briefly stated; the collateral advantages are not so easily summed up. It agreed in recommending the schedule of a log, which masters of vessels will fill up; and, by the plan of interchange adopted, the information contained in this log is distributed to the nations forming the league, and among the maritime classes that may voluntarily use the schedule. It should be remarked, that it is only incumbent upon the commanders of government vessels to substitute it, and not upon masters of the mercantile marine. The form of the log is as follows:—

1st	column.	Date.
2d	"	Hour.
3d	"	Latitude.
3′	"	" dead reckoning.
4th	"	Longitude observed.
4′	"	" dead reckoning.
5th	"	Direction of currents.
5′	"	Velocity of currents.
6th	"	Magnetic variation observed.
7th	"	Direction of winds.
7′	"	Force of winds.
8th	"	Forms and directions of clouds.
9th	"	Amount of clouds.
10th	"	Hours of rain.
11th	"	Barometer
11′	"	Thermometer attached.
12th	"	Thermometer, dry bulb.
12′	"	Thermometer, wet bulb.
13th	"	Water at surface, (temperature.)
13′	"	" " (specific gravity.)
14th	"	Water at depths, (temperature.)
14′	"	" " (specific gravity.)
15th	"	Remarks.

In glancing over the proceedings of the Conference, one is struck with the singular unanimity that characterized the sentiment of the body, and the freedom with which each member admittted the neglect of their government to supply themselves with the information so needful to the improvement of navigation. But perhaps no previous age had been ripe for the reform. It is very certain, that hitherto the principal attention bestowed upon ocean craft has been with reference to speed, capacity, and their resistance to the balls of the enemy; and that in all human estimates, neither the channels of the ocean, the phenomena of the atmosphere, nor the tempests of nature, have had much to do with ship building, ship sailing, or ship government. If by chance a rock were discovered in some known or unknown sea, a note might or might not be made of the fact on the vessel's log; but its exact location remained as ever a matter of doubt; and as for winds and currents, their existence were acknowledged, but their courses and their laws totally disregarded. Space might be devoted with profit to the consideration of the imperfections which exist in connection with the science of navigation, and the instruments that are used for determining meteorological questions. The Conference avoided discussing these topics, although allusion was made to them. It is probable, however, now that a practical effort has been made to improve the science, that not only will navigation itself derive manifold advantages from the system of inquiry adopted, but that improvement will be carried to the extent of remodelling and perfecting the instruments themselves.

~~~~~~~~~

Art. XIII.—THE COMMERCE OF PORTO RICO.

THIS Island, in its fertility and institutions similar to Cuba, numbers about 400,000 inhabitants, the tenth part of which being slaves. Of the territorial extent, amounting to an area of 550,000 acres, the fourth part only is under cultivation. We translate the following from foreign reports.

The total Imports, inclusive of 396,192 Pesos* in Entrepot, amounted to,

	P.	C.
Spanish vessels under Spanish flag,	2,030,943	53
Do. " foreign "	3	50
Foreign " " Spanish "	2,122,784	82
Do. " foreign "	2,144,663	80
1852	6,298,395	65
1851	6,073,870	02

The Exports were, 4,652,339 Pesos, inclusive of 226,512 Pesos of the Entrepot, viz.:

	P.	C.
Spanish vessels under National flag	409,618	76
Foreign " Spanish "	349,718	84
" " Foreign "	3,893,002	28
1852	4,652,339	88
1851	5,761,974	93

---

* A Pesos, 8 Reales = 100 Cents.
~~~~~~~~~

The value of Imports under the	P.
Spanish flag amounted to	4,153,728
American " "	1,126,404
Bremen " "	83,899
Danish " "	79,194
Dominican" "	1,306
French " "	163,970
Hamburg " "	19,595
Hanoverian flag "	846
Dutch " "	7,646
English " "	631,322
Oldenburg " "	11,245
Sardinian " "	2,931
Swedish " "	5,895
Venezuelian " "	10,413
Total in 1852,	6,298,395
" 1851,	6,073,870

The value of Exports under the	P.
Spanish flag amounted to	759,338
American " "	2,046,575
Bremen " "	192,986
Danish " "	151,480
Dominican" "	913
French " "	435,488
Hamburg " "	157,294
Hanoverian flag "	35,387
Dutch " "	11,412
English " "	689,546
Oldenburg " "	59,853
Sardinian " "	89,084
Swedish " "	10,727
Venezuelian " "	6,255
Total in 1852,	4,652,339
" 1851,	5,761,974

It appears herefrom, that in spite of all differential tariffs, the Spanish flag is scarcely furnishing to the trade of Porto Rico the third part of the number of vessels, and scarcely the fourth part of the number of tons; that if her imports amount indeed to 63 per cent., her exports however reach only 14 per cent. of the total amount.

There were imported into Porto Rico from the United States in

	P.
American vessels	971,802
English "	109,022
Bremen "	35,425
Spanish "	33,990
Danish "	22,099
Hanoverian "	846
Total in 1852	1,173,184
" 1851	1,187,847

The Exports from Porto Rico to the United States:

	P.
American vessels, goods in value of	2,043,237
English " "	372,016
Danish " "	38,674
Hollandish " "	5,223
Total in 1852	2,459,151
" 1851	2,518,802

The Exports of the most important products of the Island consisted, in

	1852.	1851.
Rum, Bocoyes	113¾	347¾
Cotton, lbs	318,792	366,581
Sugar, "	93,631,396	118,416,304
Coffee, "	11,370,763	12,111,971
Leather, "	508,820	632,706
Melâsse, Bocoyes	45,977	31,960
Tobacco, "	5,565,739	6,478,084

The revenue of customs gave,

	Imports.		Exports.		Tonnage, Anchorage, etc.		Total.	
	P.	C.	P.	C.	P.	C.	P.	C.
1851	975,000	02	289	66	94,129	02	1,069,418	68
1852	1,138,315	56	8,101	82	112,756	31	1,259,173	69

The following vessels of the different countries had, in 1852, entered or left the harbor of Porto Rico:—

	Entered.		Left.	
	Number of vessels.	Tons.	Number of vessels.	Tons.
Spanish	564	46,659½	489	43,395½
American	447	73,441¾	428	70,981¼
Bremen	24	4,703	24	4,587
Danish	31	4,712½	26	3,711
Dominican	3	215½	3	215½
French	91	8,171¾	90	8,129¼
Hamburg	12	2,325	12	2,325
Hanoverian	3	710	3	710
Hollandish	12	718	12	718
English	239	29,941	240	29,769¾
Oldenburg	8	1,762½	8	1,762½
Sardinian	15	1,015¾	5	1,022¾
Swedish	5	910	5	910
Venezuela	8	549½	7	528
1852	1,452	175,836½	1,352	168,766
1851	1,324	160,586½	1,209	154,042¾

Art. XIV.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT BY GOVERNMENT.—SLAVERY.

We have read with satisfaction the very able speeches delivered in Congress by the Hon. L. M. Keith, and the Hon. P. S. Brooks, of South Carolina, upon these subjects, and marked a passage from each for insertion in the Review. The material which they furnish will be found instructive and valuable by our readers.

Our first extract will be from Mr. Keith:—

Now, sir, let us examine whether internal improvements made by the Federal Government will secure—1st, economy in laying taxes; 2d, in collecting taxes; 3d, a successful application of them.

The taxes being spread over a vast surface, and drawn by indirect and circuitous means, will prevent lively watchfulness, and a full understanding of their imposition. With powerful interests struggling to enrich themselves by increasing the taxes, and a band of mercenary partisans to satisfy, it will be to the benefit of the Government to be extravagant in taxation. Watchfulness is lost in the diffusion of the burden, and accountability is drowned in the clamor of struggling factions. Have we had economy in taxation? Read the history of our legislation, and you will find it to be one of spoliation and wrong. Avarice, upon power and cunning, has begotten extravagance, and the child has pandered to the lusts of its hateful parents. History shows that internal improvements by the Federal Government are destitute of the commonest requirements of economy.

Secondly. Will it secure economy in collecting taxes? With intriguing interests to be enriched by lavish expenditures, and a cohort of needy and adventurous supporters to be supplied with places and fed out of the Treasury, is it reasonable to suppose that the number of places will be diminished, and the money power of the Government willingly reduced? The history of the past throws light upon the future.

Thirdly. Will it secure a successful application of the taxes? Will the Federal Government possess the necessary local information? and will there be the necessary watchfulness and accountability in the expenditure of the funds? and, also, a constant and unfailing supply? I think I have shown that it will not have the necessary information, as this must be derived from residence, and daily and interested observation. There will not be that watchfulness and accountability which are indispensable, because the taxes will be diffused over too great a surface; and the Government will not inspect closely the accounts of needy and clamorous partisans. Will there be a constant and unfailing supply? Will $200,000,000 to be struggled for in every presidential canvass, with splendid offices and high honors at stake, will not local applications be disregarded when they interfere with the great combinations necessary to success in such a struggle? Have they not hitherto been disregarded? The very materials which have been bought by the Federal Government to prosecute works of internal improvement have decayed, even while Congress was harassed with applications for further aid. Gigantic enterprises have been begun in every quarter of the Union, and been allowed to crumble and waste away while their recipients were clamoring at the doors of the Federal exchequer.

Never yet has the Government completed a single great work of internal improvement. It has lavished its millions, torn from toil and thrift, but it has only scattered over the land crumbling monuments of blasted enterprise, like broken columns in old Rome, telling the tale of a colossal and ruthless central despotism. With the Government, and its splendid prizes, fought for by powerful and desperate parties, pledges have been recklessly made and violated, and legislation subsidized to mere party success. Thus appropriations for internal improvement have been spasmodic and uncertain, and hopeful enterprises have wasted into ruin, while our resources have been fruitlessly squandered. As the causes still subsist, so, too, the effects must continue hereafter.

Sir, have the West and Southwest no interest in this question, in an agricultural point of view? The agricultural staples of a country are the basis of taxation. Every great shock and convulsion have borne with especial heaviness upon that interest. Sir, in this Government the weight of taxation presses upon the planting and agricultural States. Reckless spoliation and lavish expenditure have eaten into their substance. Look at the table of production, and tell me if it is not the special interest of the South and West to insure low taxes and an economical expenditure? I here submit an abstract:—

ESTIMATED VALUE OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES, AND AVERAGE AMOUNT PER HEAD.

Names of States or Sections.	Aggregate Population.	Estimated annual value of live stock and slaughtered animals.	Estimated value of other agricultural productions.	Estimated aggregate value of all productions included in the census.	Average amount per head.
New England States	2,728,116	$12,574,152	$79,694,131	$92,268,283	$33 82
Middle States, (not including District of Columbia)	6,573,301	33,809,538	241,841,932	275,651,270	41 93
Tennessee, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Louisiana	2,336,902	16,597,521	121,625,028	138,222,549	59 14
Missouri, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa	6,379,923	39,360,502	194,592,098	233,952,600	36 67

The values above given are based upon the prices at the place of production. Mr. Tucker, in his work on the Progress of the United States, states the average value of agricultural productions to each person, in 1840, as follows, viz.: In the New-England States, $33 45; Middle States, $41 57; Southwestern States, $48 76; Northwestern States, $27 41.

For this table I am indebted to Mr. De Bow, of the Census Office, and have also consulted the volumes of his REVIEW and INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES, where these and other kindred topics are elaborately discussed and presented.

The following is from the speech of Mr. Brooks:—

The institution of slavery, which it is so fashionable now to decry, has been the greatest of blessings to this entire country. At the North it has served as a vent for fanaticism, communism, and all those secretions of a morbid sentimentality, which, without this safety-valve, would long since have resulted in a social explosion; and which will be as cruel to the pure and the good, when it does come, as it is certain in the future. From Maine to Texas the slaves have been the pioneers of civilization. The forest has bowed before their march, the earth yielded its rich harvest to their labor, and given us a commerce which excites the admiration and jealousy of the world. The power of commerce is greater than that of armies and navies. England saw wherein our strength lay, and endeavored to shear us of our power, by her experiment in the West Indies, which involved the loss of millions of dollars to herself, and the miserable degradation of the very race which, with hypocritical philanthropy, she professed a desire to elevate and benefit.

Every section of this confederacy is now in the enjoyment of the rich rewards of the labor of the slave. He gives employment to the shipping interest of the East, wealth to the manufacturer of the North, and a market for the hemp and live-stock of the West.

The market of the slave States is the best and most varied upon earth. In whatever section either of the great Southern staples are grown, that particular staple is grown to the exclusion of the others. If raised in Virginia, cotton and rice are to be bought; if in the Carolinas and Georgia, tobacco and sugar; if in the extreme South and Southwest, rice and tobacco. We, of the South, are compelled to secure by exchange one or the other of even these few staples; while, by an injudicious policy, the slave States are dependent for every other article in the wide field of commerce upon other sections than our own. Not only do our slaves secure to the free States the best home market upon earth, but, sir, they are at this moment paying, by the fruits of their labor, full two-thirds of the revenue of this Government.

It appears, from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, ending June 30, 1852, (which is the last which has been published,) that the total revenue of the country was $49,728,386.

Of this amount was received from the sale of public lands.........	$2,389,060
From duties upon imports......................................	47,339,326
	$49,728,386

It is a generally admitted principle of commercial law, that the amount of imports is regulated by the amount of exports, and since our revenue is raised almost wholly from duties upon imports, it follows, if it can be shown that two-thirds of the domestic exports of this country are the products of slave labor, that the proposition is sustained, that two-thirds of the entire revenue from imports is paid by the labor of slaves.

The total value of our domestic exports, in 1852, was $192,360,984.

Of this amount, cotton was exported to the value of	$87,965,732
Tobacco	10,031,283
Rice	2,471,029
Sugar	173,978
Molasses	13,163
Snuff and tobacco (raw material)	416,000
Manufactured cottons (raw material)	3,000,000
Gold and silver	500,000
Naval stores	800,000
These alone making	$105,371,185
The probable proportional amount of other domestic exports from slave States is presumed to be about	21,030,506
Making total Southern productions	$126,401,691

The exports which were produced in all the non-slaveholding States may be stated as follows:—

Labor bestowed on refining sugar, on snuff, on tobacco, on cotton goods, &c.,	$5,572,773
Proportion of all other domestic exports	60,394,520
Total Northern productions	$65,967,293
Giving an excess in favor of the slaves States of	$60,434,398

How much of southern produce is manufactured at the north and exported as northern products, such as the cotton, which they export in their wool, and in fur, in hats, and cordage, and flax, and thread, and saddlery, and wearing apparel, and umbrellas, and sun-shades, and in books and maps, &c., &c., such as spirits from molasses, it is as impossible for me as for the purchaser to ascertain. But enough has been shown to prove the indebtedness of every quarter of the Union to the humble slaves.

But, sir, I propose to show that other debts of gratitude are due from the north to the institution of slavery.

As great as is the disproportion of the exports from the slave and the non-slaveholding States, that disproportion is immeasurably increased in the amount of duties received in the respective ports of the North and South.

The general average of duties in 1852 was a fraction over twenty-two per centum, and the total of imports amounted to $212,945,442.

Of the duties collected, there were received in Northern ports	$41,871,936
And in Southern ports but	5,467,390
Making the amount received from imports	$47,339,326

Now, sir, if there be any truth in the doctrine that the producer of exports pays in reality the duties upon the imports, although the imports be credited to northern ports, the account between the two sections will stand thus:—That while the Southern States produce *two-thirds* of the entire domestic productions of the country, we *collect* but *one-ninth* of the duties on imports. Nor is this all; for, according to the record, it appears that four-fifths of the public moneys thus collected have been appropriated to the non-slaveholding States for Government purposes and internal improvements, (including bounties to fishermen, to light-houses, buoys, river and harbor improvements, custom-house expenditures, public buildings, mail routes, &c.)

But again:—The total value of the domestic and foreign exports of the United States in the year 1852, was $209,658,386, and the total value of foreign imports $212,945,442, making an aggregate of $422,603,808. In the carriage of this amount of goods to and from foreign countries were employed 8,887 American vessels, with a capacity of 3,230,590 tons, and employing 115,253 men, and 1,780 boys. How many of these vessels or of their crews belong to the South, it is unnecessary to ask.

I have not been able to procure full reports for 1853; but the duties accruing on imported merchandise show an increase over those of 1852 of $13,625,598, and, as a consequence, a proportional increase of the value of slave labor to the people of the North.

* * *

Art. IV.—MARINE DISASTERS IN 1853.

A LIST of casualties to British shipping has been compiled from Lloyd's List, and laid before Parliament, in a blue book. We find that during the last four years there happened at sea, 12,363 disasters, varying in magnitude from a total shipwreck to a slight collision. Some of these items are very striking. Thus, the single item that "the Honest Endeavor sailed from Hull, Nova Scotia bound, and had not been heard of for three years," fails to arrest the attention so forcibly as when one is startled with the astonishing intelligence that 204 ships and their crews departed from our various ports within the four years alluded to, and not one of them was ever heard of again.

Analysis of the 12,363 casualties reported to Lloyd's for the four years ending 1850.

	Canvas.
Driven ashore by stress of weather—vessels and cargoes partially or totally lost	5,117
Collision—vessels obliged to run into port in a sinking state	2,665
Wrecked	2,295
Foundered	883
Abandoned, waterlogged, dismasted, on fire—crew taking to boats	679
Sailed and never heard of again	204
Burnt by accident	87
Damaged by ice	51
Burnt by cargoes igniting—coals, 11; flax, 1; wool, 1; cotton, 3	16
Struck by lightning and damaged	15
Blown up—by coal dust, 7; spontaneous combustion, 1; gas, 4; powder, 1	13
Plundered by pirates and destroyed	13
Taken possession of by convicts and wrecked	1
Struck by a whale and abandoned	1
Struck by a waterspout	1
Total	12,041
	Steam.
Driven ashore, but got off again	103
Collision at sea	146
Wrecked	17
Foundered	30
Burnt	8
Partially burnt	7
Abandoned at sea	2
Capsized	1
Put into a port in a sinking state	2
Sunk, and raised again	0
Sailed, and never heard of again	1
Total	322

One consoling fact in this terrible chronicle is, that but few accidents have occurred to ships ably manned and commanded; out of 12,000 and odd casualties, only 64 are recorded against ships of 700 tons and upwards. This is not merely in consequence of their size, but simply because in most large vessels greater care is shown in the selection of a crew, and in the appointment of a competent commander. Nearly all the losses have been sustained by vessels ranging from 90 to 500 tons, because these are the description of craft most likely to sail economically!—are often-weak handed, and liable to be commanded by men possessing few recommendations for filling the office of captain, except being part owner.

In reference to the British and Australian shipping, we find that it doubled itself in 1852, and 501 vessels were dispatched that year. The average passage in the Liverpool ships was reduced from 120 days in 1841, to 110 in 1852, the shortest being made by the Marco Polo, in 75 days. In 1853, the statistics of Australian navigation are known up to the 30th of September last; there seems to be every reason for supposing that the trade will again double itself, for 804 ships had been dispatched in the first nine months of the year. This gives an excess of about 67,000 tons on the whole of the trade of the year 1852. Accounts have already been received of 234 of these last vessels, and the average passages were about 105½ days, being a clear gain of five days upon the average passages of the preceding year. The Liverpool ships have beaten the London ships in this extraordinary race to the antipodes by 20 days upon the whole average, and the shortest passages were again made from Liverpool, by the celebrated Marco Polo, and her sister ship the Indian Queen, the first in 78 days, and the last in 82 days; and it is supposed that when the returns for the whole year (1853) are completed, the average passage of the Liverpool ships will be less than 100 days.

The loss of life in the last four years can only be guessed at, as it often happens that the number of the ship's company is not known. The only means of approximating to the truth, is to allow a certain number of hands to a certain tonnage, and by this process a tolerably near guess may be made. According, then, to a certain known scale of manning merchant vessels, four men and a boy being given to every 100 tons, it would seem that the annual loss of life by casualties at sea, reported to Lloyd's, average about 1,250, the gross number for the four years being 4,298. These, however, are conjectural quantities, and must be received with caution. More certainty is shown in the statistics of ships destroyed by fire; and considering the inflammable nature of the materials of which ships and their cargoes are often composed, the number annually destroyed is less than might have been supposed. Of those vessels which were burnt in consequence of the cargo igniting, the majority were laden with coals, and of the thirteen blown up, seven (7) of the accidents are attributed to coal-dust, four (4) to gas, one (1) to spontaneous combustion, and only one (1) to powder. The few accidents to steam vessels during the same period of four years, proves the comparative safety with which these vessels perform their voyages; and although it is difficult to draw any other than conjectural comparison between canvas and steam, in consequence of the disparity of numbers of the two classes of ships, yet, if we take into consideration the repeated trips a steamer makes in the course of a year, when compared with a sailing vessel, we shall find that the difference is more apparent than real. But admitting that a great numerical superiority exists on the side of sailing vessels, still the casualties reported against steamers appear very trifling.

It seems that the greatest number of fatal accidents that happen to steamers, arise from their foundering. Thirty of such events occur, while only seventeen were wrecked. In canvas ships, the average appears to be that three vessels are totally wrecked where one founders—but in steamers this is reversed: for, if these statistics can be relied on, two steamers founder for every one that is wrecked. This is, perhaps, owing to the lumbering weight of the machinery, which, in a disabled steamer, must act very detrimentally in a gale of wind. It does not appear that a steamer blew up during the period of four years, and that only eight were totally destroyed by fire, and seven partially burnt. During the same period, there were 116 sailing vessels burnt and blown up, and these singular statistics would seem to indicate that there is less chance of being blown up in a steamer than when under canvas, and paradoxical as it may appear, that there is more to fear from coal-dust than powder.

These remarks, however, must be received with caution, for the list of "casualties" is incomplete, and only contains those reported to Lloyd's, and can only be accepted as a rough guess at the losses sustained by Great Britain and a few other maritime States. These losses, however, must be tremendous, for if we compute the number of wrecks at 1,000 per annum, this gives 4,000 for the four years; an amount not over the mark. But as the tonnage is not set down against every ship, it is impossible to get at the dimensions of the vessels wrecked, abandoned, foundered, burnt, blown up, or otherwise destroyed, consequently the money value of the lost ships cannot be known. Conjectural quantities must therefore be taken. Let us say, then, that these vessels averaged 250 tons each, which is perhaps a medium figure; yet this would give the astonishing number of 1,000,000 tons of shipping lost in four years; and if we estimate the cost of building ships at 10*l.* per ton, the sum required for their construction would be 10,000,000*l.*, an amount that seems to warrant that they could not all have been insured, particularly if to this great sum be added the loss of their cargoes—the sum total of which we leave to more daring arithmeticians to determine. And yet there is every reason to suppose that this enormous loss goes on year after year; and this country, to which the greater number of the wrecked vessels appear to belong, not only sustains it with impunity, but, if we may believe statistics, is thriving beyond any kingdom upon the face of the earth.

Art. XVI.—THE AMERICAN FISHERIES.*

No part of the Annual Report on the Finances for 1852–'53, communicated to Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury on the 15th of January last, is of greater interest than that part of it devoted to the American Fisheries, from the pen of Lorenzo Sabine, Member of Congress from Massachusetts. Mr. Sabine is known to the literary world as the author of the History of the Loyalists, and is also known by his occasional contributions to the *North American Review*. Having long resided, in former years, in the State of Maine, and among the fishermen who frequent the Eastern waters, and having long been familiar with the history and progress of the American Fisheries, Mr. Sabine was appropriately selected by the Treasury Department to prepare that portion of the Treasury Report which refers to the Fishery question. He gives a careful and impartial history of the several branches of the Fisheries; their connection with the French and British Governments, and the rights of the United States in reference thereto, and statistics of the vessels, tonnage, and men employed in the trade—with the exports and imports.

The Report has a fault which is too common with American public documents, and one that detracts much from their value, viz.: the want of an index, or table of contents. An alphabetical index to the subjects treated of is highly essential to every public document; but in the present case there is neither title-page, index, nor table of contents.

The author states that more than twenty years since he formed the design of writing a work on the American Fisheries, and then commenced the collection of proper materials for this purpose. His intention embraced the whale fishing in our distant seas—the fisheries of our own coasts, lakes and rivers: with those which our citizens are entitled to prosecute within British jurisdiction, under treaty stipulations; and finally, the fisheries of the Indian tribes within the United States. The present volume combines a portion only of the design contemplated, and we hope that some one of our prominent publishing firms may be induced to secure the remainder of Mr. Sabine's work for publication. A complete history of the American Fisheries would be a very acceptable production. Such a history should, properly, be issued under the auspices of Congress; or, at least, under those of the Historical Society of this or some other State.

---

* From the *New-York Courier & Enquirer*.

The French were the first European codfishers in the American seas. There is a tradition prevailing that the fishermen of Biscay visited Newfoundland before the time of Columbus; but it is certain that the Newfoundland fisheries were known as early as the year 1504. Soon after the discoveries of Cabot, vessels wearing the flags of France, England, Spain and Portugal, embarked in the codfishery, and the *fish mania* became so prevalent and profitable, that many persons of high rank became shareholders in the new fishing adventures.

In the years 1508–'9, Thomas Aubert came from Dieppe to Newfoundland, and explored the River St. Lawrence. Eight or nine years after, (1517,) fifty ships or more, of different nations, were employed in the fisheries in that region.

In 1527 an English captain found in the harbor of St. John eleven sail of Norman and one Briton vessel engaged in the fisheries, and in 1534 Jacques Cartier was intrusted with an expedition to the fishing grounds by Francis I., of France. The result of his observations was published on his return. In 1540 the French had establishments on shore connected with the fisheries, and in the year 1577 employed no less than 150 vessels in the trade.

Between the years 1577 and 1645, this branch of industry declined, owing to civil commotions in Europe. Both England and France claimed "Acadia," embracing the present colonies of Nova Scotia and New-Brunswick, with that portion of Maine lying between the Kennebec and St. Croix. The English claimed under the grant to Sir William Alexander, and the French under their patent to Demonts.

The treaty of St. Germain, in 1632, secured to France, temporarily, certain portions of Canada, Cape Breton and Nova Scotia. The latter was afterwards taken possession of by Cromwell. In 1667 this colony passed a second time to France, by the treaty of Brèda. It was afterwards taken possession of by Sir William Phips, one of the *ancient mariners*, and held by Great Britain, until the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, when it was again assigned to France, and held by that government until the year 1710.

Down to this period the French fisheries had been more successful than those conducted by the English or American colonists. The latter afterwards took Louisburg from the French, but by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748, Cape Breton was again ceded to France.

In 1816, the French tonnage at Newfoundland was nearly

31,000, but in seven years afterwards was reduced one-half, and again resumed its importance, so that in 1829 the tonnage employed was 50,000. Their force in the Cod Fishery has been less during the present century than in the year 1744, when the French had 27,500 men and 564 vessels engaged in the trade, producing in that year 1,441,500 quintals, whereas the present number is estimated at about 12,000 men, and the annual product 450,000 quintals.

As early as the year 1600 there were 200 English vessels that left annually for the fishing grounds. In 1610, two charters were granted to companies engaged in the trade; in one of which Lord Bacon joined. In the charter to Lord Calvert, of Maryland, the freedom of the fisheries was expressly stipulated. The charter to Rhode Island by Charles II., and the patent to Sir Henry Roswell and others, of Massachusetts, also secured the fishing rights.

Charles II. endeavored to break up the trade of the Dutch in the fishing grounds, but their cause was strongly espoused by the noted Hugo Grotius.

The English colonists exported in 1814 about 1,200,000 quintals of Codfish, and large fortunes were made out of the trade, but the exports have declined or varied since; and at no period have equalled that of the year 1814, which was valued at $12,000,000. The product of the year 1849 (1,175,167 quintals) was valued at only $2,940,000.

Their exports of various periods during the last 150 years have been ascertained to be as follows, from Newfoundland:—

YEAR.	Quintals.	YEAR.	Quintals.
1716	106,952	1825	973,464
1763	493,654	1830	760,171
1774	759,877	1835	712,588
1785	591,276	1838	724,515
1799	453,337	1840	915,795
1805	526,380	1842	1,007,980
1814	1,200,000	1845	1,000,333
1815	1,180,661	1848	920,366
1820	899,729	1849	1,175,167

The Newfoundland Seal Fishery has produced less during the last few years than twenty years since. This trade originated in 1795, but was not prosecuted to any extent till the year 1814. The annual exports of the port of St. John have varied from 28,000 seal skins to 685,000. In the year 1847, the tonnage employed in the trade was 30,819, and the number of vessels 324.

The fishing trade of Prince Edward's Island, the Magdalen Island, Bay of Chaleurs, Labrador, and New-Brunswick, is on a limited scale.

In 1814, when a treaty of peace was under consideration between the United States and Great Britain, the Fishery question was one of the stumbling-blocks to a reconciliation between the two governments. The English claimed that by the war, we had forfeited the fishing liberties that had been ceded us by treaty of 1783. But so important were considered these rights to our own citizens, that John Adams, in November, 1814, wrote:—

"All that I can say is, that I would continue this war *forever*, rather than surrender one acre of our territory, one iota of the fisheries, as established by the third article of the treaty of 1783, or one sailor impressed from any merchant ship."

We annex a table of the exports of Dried Codfish, and their value since 1803:—

YEAR.	Quintals.	Value.
1803	461,800	$1,620,000
1804	567,800	2,460,000
1805	514,500	2,058,000
1806	537,400	2,150,000
1807	473,900	1,896,000
1808	155,800	623,000
1809	345,600	1,123,000
1810	280,800	912,000
1811	214,300	757,000
1812	169,000	592,000
1813	63,600	210,000
1814	31,300	128,000
1815	103,200	494,000
1816	219,900	935,000
1817	267,500	1,003,000
1818	308,700	1,081,000
1819	280,500	1,052,000
1820	321,400	964,000
1821	267,300	708,000
1822	241,200	666,000
1823	262,700	784,000
1824	310,100	872,000
1825	300,800	830,000
1826	260,800	667,000
1827	247,300	747,000
1828	265,200	$619,000
1829	294,700	747,000
1830	229,700	530,000
1831	230,500	625,000
1832	250,500	749,000
1833	249,600	713,000
1834	253,100	630,000
1835	267,700	783,000
1836	240,700	746,000
1837	188,900	568,000
1838	206,000	626,000
1839	208,700	709,000
1840	211,400	541,000
1841	252,200	602,000
1842	256,000	567,000
1843	174,200	381,000
1844	271,600	699,000
1845	288,300	803,000
1846	277,400	699,000
1847	258,800	659,000
1848	206,500	609,000
1849	197,400	419,000
1850	168,600	365,000
1851	151,000	367,000

In this trade (cod fishery) there were employed in 1851 vessels to the extent of 95,616 tons, viz.:—Maine, 45,528; New-Hampshire, 1,916; Massachusetts, 39,982; Rhode Island, 371; Connecticut, 6,785; New-York, 1,034. In 1789 the tonnage employed was 19,185; in 1810, 34,800; in 1820, 72,000; in 1830, 98,500; in 1834, 117,400 (the largest number within sixty years past); and in 1840, 76,000.

In the Mackerel Fishery were employed in the year 1851, as follows:—

STATE.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Men and Boys.
Massachusetts	853	53,705	9,112
Maine	47	3,019	446
New-Hampshire	8	515	84
Rhode Island	7	479	71
Connecticut	23	1,551	255
Maryland	2	141	25
	940	59,410	9,993

Of this large number the port of Gloucester alone furnished 241 vessels, of 13,639 tons, and 2,326 men and boys. In that year the number of barrels imported was 353,000; in 1831, 404,000.

Mr. Sabine's Report concludes with a "Historical View of the Controversy as to the intent and meaning of the first article of the Convention of 1818."

The Census returns for 1850 exhibit the following:—

Statistics of the Cod and Mackerel Fisheries of Maine, New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, June 1, 1850, *as derived at the Census Office, Washington.*

STATE.	Capital invested.	Men employed.	Amount of wages or earnings per month.	Quintals Codfish.	Barrels Mackerel.	Value of products of the fisheries.
Maine	$491,430	2,732	$51,829	173,094	15,241	$558,250
N. Hampshire	42,700	300	3,000	19,550	1,060	59,281
Massachusetts	2,127,885	7,917	137,995	215,170	236,468	2,188,441
Connecticut	279,300	911	16,082	No ret'n	No ret'n	261,683
	$2,941,315	11,860	$208,906	407,814	252,769	$3,067,655

Art. XVII.—RICE—ITS USES AND PRODUCTION.

DR. WILKINSON, of the Parish of Plaquemine, Louisiana, has addressed a letter to a citizen of New-Orleans upon the subject of Rice, which has been copied into the *Delta.* We know Dr. Wilkinson to be a gentleman of great public spirit, practical intelligence, and large professional reputation, and therefore take pleasure in giving his letter to our readers:—

Feeling a deep interest in the culture of Rice, and believing it an object of great importance as a source of wealth to the State of Louisiana, my attention has been much directed, for several years past, to acquiring information relative to its nature, growth, &c. Regarding its native land, or the countries from whence it was imported into the United States, one would infer at once that Louisiana would be a favored spot for its propagation; and experience has already demonstrated the correctness of this supposition. Although to my apprehension it is in its incipient stage, as a staple product, since its great nutritive qualities, the simplicity of its cultivation, and the generous yield obtained by the producer of this grain, must render it an object of much importance in the increase of our population. Its easy digestibility renders it very suitable as an article of diet in warm countries—where it particularly luxuriates—and, by the subsistence of entire nations almost upon this substance alone, it seems eminently adapted to the support of human life. Its superiority to Indian corn as an article of food to the negroes who work in our lowlands,—or wherever there exists a tendency to what are commonly termed "bowel complaints,"—is to me very apparent. And I know owners of large sugar plantations who purchase rice largely as a substitute for corn-meal, as food for their slaves, under the impression that its use prevents, in a great degree, derangements of the digestive organs. A fact well known to me, is the comparative immunity of the slaves owned by rice planters from those diseases of the bowels which are very common among the negroes who work on sugar plantations—which immunity cannot be ascribed to peculiarity of location, since rice plantations and sugar plantations are here placed side by side, and sometimes alternate for miles together. The work on rice plantations is certainly less laborious than that on sugar plantations; but I cannot impute the superiority in health of the negroes on rice plantations to the exemption from heavy labor, since many rice planters hire their negroes, during the rolling season, to sugar planters, and hence subject them to the most laborious portion of the whole of the operations on a sugar estate. But when it is found that sugar planters actually furnish rice to their negroes as a preservative of health, the inference becomes very strong, that the consumption of rice as a great proportion of the food of the slave on a rice plantation, has a material influence on the sanitary condition of the latter estates. While writing, a case presents itself to me, of which I was personally cognizant, where a gentleman of my acquaintance—a sugar planter—sent one of his negroes, who had for some time labored under diarrhœa, to reside on a small rice plantation, with the good effect of an entire restoration to health. My experience as a physician, which extends through a series of fourteen years of active practice, inclines me positively to the opinion that the ratio of mortality is decidedly greater on sugar plantations than upon rice plantations situated in similar localities. This fact is in opposition to general opinion, which opinion, however, is formed from information derived from the reports of the rice planters of Carolina. But whatever may prevail in Carolina, my information is too positive to admit of a doubt. An intimate acquaintance with the population engaged in each cultivation, and the constant opportunities of observation afforded while practising medicine, among both classes, confirm me in this conclusion: The cultivation of rice in this country is as tolerable in its effects upon the health of whites as that of any other agricultural product with which I am acquainted. A large population is here congregated in districts in which rice is the exclusive article of culture, and the census statistics of this parish exhibit as great a natural increase of population as can be found in any other section of the State, at least four-fifths of which white population live in the rice growing districts. The physical aspect of this region would lead to the supposition that similar effects upon health would ensue here upon the cultivation of rice as are met with in Carolina; but such is certainly not the case. The solution of this anomaly will doubtless yield to the investigation of intelligent observers; but as yet, scarcely any attention has been paid to this fact, or to any other matter connected with this important subject. Entertaining certain opinions relative to this peculiarity, I am free to confess that I have not that mass of facts in my possession which would warrant its ascription to any particular cause. It is very possible, however, that the water of the Mississippi, which is altogether used in irrigation, has some material agency in conducing to this immunity from disease. It is much to be regretted that the great natural advantages offered to the growers of rice in Southern Louisiana should have been so much neglected. This proceeeds probably from the absorbing interest which has been excited by the production of sugar, and by a false estimation (we believe) in the comparative value of the two crops. The present depressed condition of the sugar market may, and probably will, dispose to a more critical comparison of the value of these products. Diminishing the incentive to produce sugar, must have the effect of stimulating the production of rice, since these are the natural products of our climate. The fact, too, that the transition from sugar to rice involves no material change in the arrangements of the plantation, and requires not one-half the amount of stock usually employed on a sugar plantation, dispensing also with the series of expensive workmen and still more expensive machinery, may prove some inducement to an alteration of crops.

The prices at which rice lands range in Carolina sufficiently prove the value of the crop, and that it cannot be cultivated advantageously on a large scale is disproved by the existence in Carolina of immense rice plantations, working on each gangs of negroes equal in number to those employed in our largest sugar estates.

As an average crop, rice produces in Louisiana, probably, a greater revenue from the amount of land cultivated, and from the number of laborers employed, than is derived from the growth of any other grain. The adaptation of the lands on the Mississippi to the growth of rice, may be inferred from the fact that these lands may be cultivated continuously for any number of years in rice, without any diminution in the crop; provided they are freely watered and the rice properly weeded. This result obtains not only from the extraordinary richness of the soil, but also from the admirable quality of the water used, which comes laden with fertilizing particles of earthy matter, obtained from the washings of the Upper Mississippi and its numerous tributaries—a property which forever dispenses with the necessity of manuring or resting the land, and in the economy of its application defies imitation by any process of art. The happy order of nature in the adaptation of her multiform works to her various ends, is here shown by the annual supply of this valuable water to the cultivator of rice. Brought to his door as regularly as the blossoms of spring return, he has only to open his sluices and pour the rich flood upon his field; and upon nature's bounteous hand does he only rely to fill his granaries with the rich harvests of rice. Nor has he made one single effort to assist her providence, when the waters pass not above their natural banks. If they rise not to a level, from which they can be distributed upon the less devoted fields, no attempt is made to remedy the want—but a resigned submission is expressed to what is looked upon as an irremediable circumstance. Now this—and this only—from all that I can learn, is the only cause that need be apprehended of failure in the rice crop of Louisiana—an insufficient rise in the river, or the subsidence of the waters at an early date. This, then, to one who entertains the intention of cultivating rice, should be viewed as the only cause, here, of the failure in the crop. And the means of remedying this want, ought to be one of the first objects of his attention. Now, the facility with which this defect can be met is such, that it ought to be an opprobrium to the rice planters not to have overcome the obstacle before. A small water-wheel, say six or eight feet in diameter, which can be propelled by two horses or mules, and which it would not be necessary to run more than six hours per diem, would be amply sufficient to supply any field now under cultivation; or, should the enterprise or means of the planter lead him to a more extended cultivation, the application of a small engine to the propulsion of this wheel would probably prove an advantageous substitute for the horse power. At the season of the year when this irrigation is acquired in this parish, the water is always within twelve or fourteen inches of the point from which free irrigation can be obtained. Now, the ease with which water can be thrown to that height is very apparent to any one who is familiar with the operation of a draining wheel, when water is thrown sometimes four and five feet high. The cost of a horse draining machine to drain fifty acres, varies from one hundred and fifty dollars to two hundred and fifty dollars, which machine, I am satisfied, would supply water abundantly to an area of from one hundred and fifty to two hundred acres of rice land. Considering the case, then, by which this difficulty can be obviated, the rice cultivation, in this region, presents an ever plenteous crop, and a ready source of wealth, and we are happy to learn that individuals are already commencing preparations here on a large scale for its culture. The capacity of the Mississippi lands for the production of rice, may be judged of, when it is known that in numerous instances, abundant crops of this article have been made by simply scattering the seed on the surface of the ground, without any previous process of preparation, save that of burning off the grass. And even within a few days past I was told by two rice planters, that they had both tried this method with results entirely satisfactory to themselves. Now, viewing the effects which must accrue from an enlightened and studied system of cultivation, such as is pursued in the Carolinas, it is not too much to say, that the growth of rice in the State of Louisiana must be the most profitable crop of which we have knowledge.

A great mistake is made in supposing that the rice of Louisiana cannot be produced of equal quality with that of Carolina. Some crops which were grown last year in my immediate vicinity, exhibit as fine a quality of rice as any which I have seen imported into Louisiana from the above-mentioned States.

But it must be confessed that the generality of Louisiana rice is decidedly inferior to that produced in the Carolinas. This arises from two causes, both now easily remedied. One is the successive cultivation of the same seed from rice, which was originally inferior. The other exists in the imperfect manner hitherto adopted in the process of milling the rice. Thanks to the enterprise and patriotism of a few gentlemen of New-Orleans, opportunity is now presented to the planters of obtaining the choicest variety of Carolina seed, as well as the means of milling their rice by the most improved modern machinery, an acquisition which we hesitate not to say we believe will be productive of vast benefit to the agricultural community of our State, and to the numerous interests with which agriculture is associated. We have visited and examined the rice mill on St. Joseph street, in New-Orleans, with the greatest satisfaction—looking upon its establishment as the dawn of a new era in the agricultural history of our State—and confidently expect that it will give an impetus to the growth of rice, which will place it amongst our first staples. We would direct the attention of all persons interested in the agricultural prosperity of Louisiana to this establishment, and urge upon them the policy of promoting its operation. We believe, indeed, that to works of this character is a city as much dependent for its growth and prosperity as to the railroads or canals, a proof of which exists in many vast cities of Europe, which are built up by their internal works, and exist altogether without the appendage of railroads to sustain them.

Before closing this long letter, I will institute a comparison between the profits of the rice and sugar cultivation, the fairness of which can be estimated best by those familiar with the respective crops:—

SUGAR.		RICE.	
Av. prod. of 1 man. } Sugar	8,000 lbs.	Av. prod. of 1 man. } Rice	12,000 lbs.
Av. prod. of 1 man. } Molasses	480 gals.		
8000 lbs. sugar, 3½d	$280 00	12,000 lbs. rice, 3d	$360 00
480 gals. molasses, 18d	86 40	Expenses, 25 per cent	90 00
Total	366 40	Net profit, rice	270 00
Expenses 38 per cent	120 90	Net profit, sugar	245 50
Net profit, sugar	245 50	Balance favor rice	24 50

The scope of a letter will not permit a very minute comparison, but the above estimate, I believe, closely approximates the reality. It is to be borne in mind, however, that the rice crop requires much less labor than the sugar crop, and that the wear and tear of machinery, stock, &c., is much less in the former than in the latter crop. The cultivation of rice is so admirably described by Mr. Allston, in an article published in DE BOW'S REVIEW, (April number, 1846,) and in the same work, (October number, 1850,) by Mr. Ruffin, that I would advise all persons interested in this subject to read and study these papers. With these gentlemen, agriculture is treated as a science, which has fixed rules, and which, for its most successful pursuit, requires the application of intellect to the investigation of its laws. With us it is mostly a hap-hazard business, slovenly performed, and exhibiting in its every aspect the want of that impress of mind which renders attractive and ennobles a subject.

Art. XVIII.—THE HOG BUSINESS OF THE WEST.

We copy the following from the *Cincinnati Prices Current* of a late date:—

PRODUCTION OF HOGS.

	1852-3.	1853-4.		1852-3.	1853-4.
Ohio	617,342	734,300	Missouri	112,500	149,845
Kentucky,	369,600	505,225	Wisconsin	35,518	419,000
Tennessee	26,500	58,880	Detroit	10,000	7,500
Indiana	611,018	619,176			
Illinois	361,132	365,784	Grand totals	2,201,110	2,534,770
Iowa	57,500	45,060			

Thus an increase is shown in the crop of 1853–4 of 333,660 head in number. The increase in weight, as nearly as we have been able to ascertain, averaged ten pounds to the hog, east of the Wabash, viz.: in Ohio, Indiana and Kentucky; while in Tennessee, Illinois, Iowa, Missouri and Wisconsin, the increase was fully twenty pounds per head. In our last annual statement, we estimated the hogs as averaging 198 pounds throughout the West. This, we presume, was not far from the actual average, and we therefore take it as the basis for our present calculations. Adding ten pounds for the increase in Ohio, Indiana and Kentucky hogs, the average would be 208 pounds; and adding twenty for the remaining States, the average would be 218 pounds. The entire crop, as reported above, when reduced to pounds, is as follows:—

	1852–3.	1853–4.
Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky lbs.	316,415,880	386,609,808
Other States	119,423,700	147,383,042
Totals	435,839,580	533,992,850
This makes the increase equal in numbers to, in		
Ohio, Indiana and Kentucky		337,000
Other States		128,000
Total		465,000

The increase in number is a fraction over fifteen per cent. on last year's aggregate, and in pounds the product shows an increase of twenty-two and a half per cent.

With reference to the hogs put up by farmers, it is doubtless true, that the number exceeds that of last year, particularly in the West, where packers were more backward in acceding to the demands of feeders than they were in this section. The product of lard to the hog is considerably greater than last year. Hogs everywhere were fat and larded well, and the high price of this article induced a very full production. Owing, however, to the fact that the country was almost entirely bare of supplies, in connection with the rapidly increasing home consumption and a very heavy foreign demand, prices are sustained at a point relatively higher than for other hog products.

HOGS DRIVEN SOUTH AND EAST.

We expected to be able to present with this report a full statement of the hogs driven South, and transported to the Atlantic markets; but we have found it impossible, so far, to collect all the facts necessary to such an exhibit.

We have the number received at Buffalo, also the number transported over the Pennsylvania Railroad, Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and those driven through the Cumberland Gap. These statements we here present, though they make only a partial exhibit:—

	1852–3.	1853–4.
Through Cumberland Gap	53,164	11,100
By Pennsylvania Railroad	5,000	30,102
By the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad	80,510	98,897
Received at Buffalo by Lake	111,223	114,952
By R. R. from Detroit to Niagara Falls	none	7,000
	249,897	257,050

The number forwarded by the New-York and Erie Railroad we have not yet been able to ascertain, though we have made repeated efforts to obtain the information.

The hogs transported by this route were received at Dunkirk by Lake, and by the Lake Shore Railway. There are also some routes from Kentucky to the South, besides the Cumberland Gap, from which it is not possible to obtain reliable information. It would be therefore impossible to compile a complete statement of hogs taken to the Atlantic States and the South. Our information from the Cumberland Gap is official and reliable.

Art. XII.—RUSSIAN COMMERCE.*

THAT the commerce of Russia has been greatly developed since the peace of 1815, is doubtless the case; but her commercial progress has been far less than that of the Western nations of Europe, and to this circumstance may be ascribed the present power of its government to disturb the peace of the world. Were the numbers of merchants, and the aggregate of their interests in foreign commerce, in as large a proportion to the rest of the people as those of other governments are to the respective population, the government could not lightly sacrifice them to a mere whim. The classified account of the population, as published officially in 1836, was as follows:

---

* From *United States Economist.*

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Clergy	273,905	264,472	538,377
Nobles	550,700	565,145	1,115,845
Merchants	131,347	120,714	252,061
Shopkeepers, artisans, &c.	1,339,434	1,433,982	2,773,416
Townspeople	76,322	74,082	150,404
Slaves of the crown	10,441,399	11,022,594	21,463,993
Slaves of the nobles	11,403,722	11,953,873	23,362,595
Tribes	245,715	261,982	507,697
Trans-Caucasians	689,147	689,150	1,378,297
Poland	2,077,311	2,110,911	4,188,222
Finland	663,658	708,804	1,372,462
Colonies	30,761	30,292	61,053
Total	28,896,223	30,237,343	59,133,566

There are twenty-one and a half millions slaves, male and female, in the villages, the property of the crown, and rather a larger number the property of the nobles. The male nobles own, therefore, an average of forty slaves each, living in feudal state. The "shopkeepers and artisans" comprise the inhabitants of towns. The small number of "merchants," or they who transact the commerce of Russia, is divided into three classes. The first, or they who report themselves worth 10,000 to 50,000 roubles, or $7,500 to $37,500, are *exempt from corporeal punishment*, and are allowed to drive two horses; and these include those who are enrolled as foreign merchants. The second are worth 5,000 to 10,000 roubles, and transact *inland* trade only. Third, those who are worth 1,000 to 5,000 roubles. None but native Russians transact inland trade; and those who import goods into Russia must sell them to Russian merchants. As capital is scarce in Russia, imported goods are sold on long credits; but cash is now more the custom than formerly, and the exports are mostly paid in cash. From Nov. to May, usually, produce is sold to merchants to be delivered after May, the shipping season. The linen manufactures generally sell in March, for cash. In this state of affairs, generally, much external commerce could not be expected; and the value of the exports compare with those of other nations, as follows:

	Population.	Exports.	Exports Per head.
Great Britain, 1850	30,323,046	415,000,000	$13.8
United States, 1850	23,267,496	235,000,000	10
France, 1850	35,789,240	168,750,000	4.5
Russia, 1850	59,133,566	75,186,000	1.25

Petersburg and Riga, in the Baltic, are the chief ports. This is but a small result for a power which boasts such resources.

The following table exhibits the quantities of the principal articles of import entered for home consumption in European

Russia, in the years specified, and it will suffice to give an idea of the nature of Russian commerce:

		1842.	1847.	1848.
IMPORTS.				
Sheeps' Wool	lbs.	1,000,368	2,022,696	2,094,264
Dyeing Stuffs		889,016	906,757	879,215
Raw Sugar	cwt.	618,062	259,855	439,209
Refined Sugar		..	217,888	112,810
Machinery and Tools	£.	81,891	298,434	291,149
Wines and Liquors		925,613	1,025,006	1,142,434
Silk Manufactures		635,089	643,270	528,656
Linen Manufactures		54,978	80,255	69,960
EXPORTS.				
Hemp	tons.	38,771	43,903	38,743
Flax		48,849	37,777	60,007
Tallow	cwt.	1,088,017	1,270,240	1,271,599
Sheeps' Wool	lbs.	20,378,772	15,057,480	8,593,056
Linseed and Hempseed	qrs.	772,290	990,775	865,514
Timber, Neals, &c	£.	335,604	595,678	395,622
Grain	qrs.	1,699,366	7,553,847	2,843,397
Flour	£.	102,790	928,292	58,725

For *inland* trade of Russia, Moscow is the leading *entrepot*; for that of China, Kiacta; and the great fair of Nijni Novgorod is one of the most celebrated in Europe.

Some idea may be formed of the quantity of business there transacted, if we give the results of the fair in the year 1849. The transactions in that year are stated to have been less satisfactory than those of 1848. The price of tea was 20 per cent. higher, and injuriously affected the trade in other articles. Money was scarce, owing to the recent stagnation of the corn trade, and the payment for two-thirds of the aggregate purchases is said to have been deferred for periods of twelve, eighteen, and even twenty-four months. With these drawbacks, the total value of the domestic articles at the fair was £7,916,016 sterling. The following found a sale:—Raw materials, £1,917,940; provisions, £858,684; and domestic manufactures, £3,981,716; the total sales of domestic articles amounting to £6,758,340, leaving £1,157,675 unsold. The total foreign articles at the fair amounted to £2,430,191, of which £493,955 worth of European raw materials found a sale, and £204,888 of manufactures. Asiatic articles sold to the extent of £1,329,131; the total sales of foreign articles being £2,027,944, leaving £402,217 unsold. So that, in fact, the total value of both domestic and foreign articles at the fair was no less than £10,346,207, of which £8,786,314 found buyers, and £1,559,893 remained unsold. The quantity of raw cotton entered for home consumption in European Russia was, in 1842, 18,477,144 pounds, and increased progressively to 1848, when it realized 44,331,660 pounds. In 1842, 21,760,380 pounds of cotton twist was also imported, but in consequence of the establishments in Russia, which we shall particularize presently, decreased, in 1848, to 18,901,142 pounds. The following is an official statement, in a tabular form, of the quantities of raw cotton and cotton yarn imported at St. Petersburg in each year, from 1838 to 1849:

Years.	Raw Cotton. Cwts.	Cott. Yarn. Cwts.	Years.	Raw Cotton. Cwts.	Cotton Yarn. Cwts.
1838	85,541	177,338	1844	173,012	195,605
1839	91,326	163,108	1845	222,057	154,108
1840	77,479	144,935	1846	188,574	122,082
1841	84,704	149,430	1847	244,887	104,397
1842	120,199	188,738	1848	397,137	91,212
1843	131,895	186,362	1849	423,107	64,565

We subjoin a curious statement of the number of cotton-spinning factories at St. Petersburg, with the number of spindles, and the quality and quantity of yarn produced therein on the 29th of February, 1849, since which period they have materially increased. The first-named establishment, under the government director, General Wilson, is said to have been commenced in 1800, on private account; the remainder were established in the years specified. This statement is derived from official sources:

		Spindles.		Yarn Produced.		
	Mills owned by—	No.	Kind.	Quality. No.	Qn'ty per day. Hks.	Hs.
	General Wilson	19,000	M.*	38 fair	3¼	12
1834.	Steiglitz, Wilson & Co	60,000	M.	38 good	3¾	12¼
1836.	Mattzoff & Sobolefsky	2,000 28,000	T. M.	37 fair	6¼	23
1836.	Joint Stock Company	68,000	M.	38 fair	3¾	12½
1838.	Thomas Wright & Co	16,000 44,000	T. M.	37 fair	3¾	12¼
1843.	Egerton Hubbard	35,000	M.	39 good	4	12½
1845.	Loder, Busk & Co	36,000	M.	39 good	4	13¼
1847.	John Thomas & Co	25,000	T.	32 good	4	12¼
1847.	Mituphanoff	10,000	M.	Not then ready.		

In 1842, Russia imported between 40,000 and 50,000 pieces of white cotton cambrics, besides coverlets, muslins, colored stuffs, gloves, &c., and these articles exhibit a blank for the years 1848 and 1849. The whole amount of cotton manufactures imported in 1848 was valued at £605,290; whereof £415,852 was from Great Britain. Prussia sends about £108,000. The importations of woollen goods also declined. Baizes, camlets, carpets, cashmeres, flannels, and a variety of the best descriptions of woollen goods, of which, in 1844, Russia imported a considerable quantity, exhibit the same unsatisfactory blank in 1848 and 1849, as some of the cotton manufactures. The total imports of woollen goods declined from £619,475, in 1844, to £335,881, in 1848. A premium of five silver roubles per pood is paid on Russian velvets and half velvets exported to China, and six silver roubles on Nankins and other cotton goods. The premium allowed for these exports at the Kiakhta custom-house was 92,795 silver roubles in 1847, and 73,648 silver roubles in 1848. At the Astrachan and Moscow custom-houses, on cotton goods exported to the Caucasian frontiers, a drawback of one-half the duty paid on foreign cotton yarn is returned, viz., three silver roubles, twenty-five copecs per pood. This drawback, allowed at Astrachan, was but 3,346 silver roubles in 1847, but increased to 12,969 silver roubles in 1848. In Moscow it amounted to 19,390 silver roubles. The whole amount of premiums and drawbacks, inclusive of Kiakhta tea exported to Poland, the duty on which is returned, and the duty on tobacco of Russian manufacture, the excise duty on which is also returned when exported either by the frontiers or to the kingdom of Poland, amounted in the whole empire of Russia to only £27,969 sterling in 1847, and £26,095 sterling in 1848.

---

* M., mule; T., throstle.

With the exception of raw cotton, the import trade of Russia cannot be damaged by the war; and the export trade, far from important, but more so to St. Petersburg merchants than to any other parties. The suspension of the trade this winter has been great, no person being willing to buy produce to be delivered in the spring, under the present circumstances. As a consequence, financial crisis exists in St. Petersburg, and exchanges are in favor of London. The direct United States trade with Russia, for 1852, was as follows:—

UNITED STATES EXPORTS TO AND IMPORTS FROM RUSSIA, 1852.

DOMESTIC EXPORTS.

	Quantity.	Value.
Oil, Sperm	2,326	$2,992
Lumber	—	250
Oak Bark	—	8,074
Skins and Furs	—	2,893
Cheese, lbs	328	15
Hams and Bacon	6,770	672
Ship Bread, bbls	174	1,321
Ship Bread, kegs	50	
Rice, tcs	1,122	25,196
Cotton, lbs	10,475,168	962,346
Tobacco, hhds	600	44,515
Drugs	—	100
Other Manuf.	—	12,824
		$1,061,748
In American vessels		860,478
In foreign vessels		201,270

FOREIGN PRODUCE.

	Quantity.	Value.
Coffee, lbs	6,880	$697
Cabinet Wood	—	4,875
Firewood	—	200
Dyewood	—	22,657
Sugar, lbs	350,858	21,146
Dates	2,223	114
Cigars, M	20	350
		$138,732
In American vessels		113,933
In foreign vessels		24,799

IMPORTS TO UNITED STATES.

	Quantity.	Value.
Old Junk	—	$49,981
Oakum	—	3,521
Seeds, &c.	—	737
Books	—	140
Manufactures	—	1,618
Linens	—	60,471
Other Flax	—	32,706
Goods of Hemp	—	238,814
Duck, pcs	1,690	16,208
Duck, Ravens'	7,851	49,168
Bagging, yds	800	8,359
Clothing	—	1,535
Matting	—	6,430
Sheet Iron, lbs	5,185,225	312,106
Scrap Iron, cwt	1,511	4,660
Bar	2,840	7,984
Leather, Sole, lbs	34,472	15,341
Leather, Upper	11,693	$4,780
Skins, Dressed, &c.	104	939
Skivers	47	295
Wool, lbs	178,904	20,260
Soap	3.313	492
Bristles	283,632	203,090
Cordage, Tarred	1,233,410	81,218
Cordage, Untarred	1,623,049	112,146
Twine	4,596	439
Hemp, cwt	25,021	152,018
Codilla	5,710	35,077
Flax	8,208	54,763
Rags, lbs	47,857	1,901
		$1,581,620
In American vessels		1,276,388
In foreign vessels		305,232

Art. II.—THE SOUTHERN ROUTE TO THE PACIFIC.

TEXAS RAILROAD ACT.

We consider the Act passed at the last Session of the Texas Legislature of such great national importance, as to warrant its insertion entire in our pages. It donates an immense amount of valuable land in aid of the Southern route to the Pacific, and is entitled to be studied with attention by our people.

An Act to Provide for the Construction of the Mississippi and Pacific Railroad.—Sec. 1. Be it enacted by the Legislature of the State of Texas, That for the purpose of aiding in the construction of a Railroad from some point on the eastern boundary line of the State of Texas, not north of the town of Fulton in the State of Arkansas, to a suitable point on the Rio Grande, at or near the town of El Paso, there be, and hereby is appropriated and set apart to any company or companies who may undertake and construct said road, twenty sections of land, of six hundred and forty acres to the section, for each and every mile of said road which may be constructed and put in complete operation according to the terms of this act, to be selected and patented, in the manner hereinafter provided for.

Sec. 2. That a right of way, not exceeding three hundred feet in width, be and the same is hereby set apart and granted along the entire length of said road, through the public lands of the State of Texas, to be held and enjoyed for the uses and purposes of said road forever, and that all earth, stone, timber and other material, of whatsoever character and description, on the public lands, so long as they shall remain the property of the State, in the vicinity of said road, be and the same are hereby made subject to the uses and purposes of said road, as well in the construction thereof as in supplying the same with the necessary furniture and machinery, to be made available as occasion may require, by those employed in the construction, management or working of said road; provided, That said company shall not be allowed to use any timber which may be upon the alternate sections reserved to the State, except upon the three hundred feet granted as the right of way, after the completion of the road.

Sec. 3. That the said road shall be constructed throughout in a thorough, substantial and workmanlike manner, with all necessary drains, culverts, bridges, viaducts, crossings, turnouts, sidings, stations, watering places and all other appurtenances, including equipments of locomotives of sufficient speed and capacity, commodious and comfortable passenger cars, and freight cars adapted to the business to be done, and equal, in all respects and at all times, to a road of the first class when thoroughly organized for business; to be under the constant supervision of a sufficient number of skilful engineers, to be employed by the directors of said road; the rails to be of the best quality, weighing not less than sixty-four pounds to the yard; fifty miles of said road to be finished and put in complete operation within eighteen months after entering into the contract hereinafter provided for, and at least one hundred miles thereof to be finished and put in operation in like manner every year thereafter, until the whole shall be completed.

Sec. 4. That it shall be the duty of the Governor of the State, immediately after the passage of this act, to advertise in such public newspapers as he may judge proper, not exceeding twelve in number, inviting proposals from companies or individuals for the construction of said road, which proposals shall be filed in the office of the Secretary of State, at such time as the Governor may direct, provided said bids are made on or before the first day of August next; and shall specify the time at which the work shall be commenced; the number of miles to be finished and placed in running order within the first eighteen months and each year thereafter, and at what time the entire road shall be completed, together with the amount proposed to be deposited in the Treasury of this State, according to the terms of this act, to be forfeited in case fifty miles of said road shall not be completed within eighteen months from the timeof entering into the contract hereinafter provided for.

Sec. 5. That it shall be the duty of the Governor, as soon as practicable, to select from the proposals so made, that one which in his judgment, under all the circumstances of the case, shall offer the strongest assurances and guaranties that the road will be promptly and substantially built in its whole length, according to the provisions of this act, and to enter into contracts for the construction of the same, which contracts shall so cover in detail, all the provisions of this act, as to secure the construction and maintenance of a road, at all times equal in all respects to a road of the first class when thoroughly organized for business; and in case those whose proposals may have been accepted, fail or refuse to enter into the contract, then the said Governor may contract with any company or individuals for the construction and maintenance of said road according to the provisions of this act.

Sec. 6. That said contractors, their associates and successors, and those who may become stockholders in said company, shall be, and are hereby declared to be, a body politic and corporate, for and during the term of ninety-nine years, by the name and style of the Mississippi and Pacific Railroad Company, and under that name capable of suing and being sued, impleading and being impleaded in law and equity, in all courts and places whatsoever, in like manner and as fully as natural persons, and by said corporate name and style shall be capable in law of contracting and being contracted with; shall have the power of acquiring by purchase, donation or otherwise, real and personal estate, holding and conveying the same, and all other powers, immunities, rights and privileges necessary to carry into full effect the provisions of this act.

Sec. 7. That said corporation is hereby authorized and empowered to survey, locate, construct, complete, alter, maintain and operate a railroad, with one or more tracks or lines of rails from a point not north of the town of Fulton, in the State of Arkansas, to some suitable point on the Rio Grande, at or near the town of El Paso; and for the purpose of effecting the desirable and national object of constructing a continuous and national railway from the Mississippi river to the Pacific Ocean, said company are hereby authorized to form connections and enter into agreements with such other companies as they may see fit, and where such companies are so united by agreements properly entered into and recorded in the office of the Secretary of State of this State, they shall be regarded as one corporation, with all the rights, immunities and privileges necessary to accomplish the object, not inconsistent with the Constitution and laws of the United States, or any of the States through which the said road may be constructed.

Sec. 8. That the capital stock of the company shall be twenty millions of dollars, which may be increased from time to time to any sum not exceeding the entire amount expended on account of said railroad, divided into shares of one hundred dollars each, which shall be deemed personal property, and may be subscribed for, issued and transferred in such manner and at such times and places as may be prescribed in the by-laws of said company.

Sec. 9. That said contractors shall have power to organize said company by calling a meeting of the stockholders, at such time and place as they may deem expedient, to elect a board of directors to consist of not exceeding fifteen members, one of whom shall be chosen by the directors to act as President, and said directors so elected shall have power to appoint such other officers and agents as they may think proper, and to adopt such by-laws as may be necessary, not inconsistent with the Constitution of the United States, nor the Constitution and laws of the State of Texas, a copy of which by-laws shall be filed with the Secretary of State, and published in at least three newspapers in the State; to provide for the meetings of the Board of Directors; appoint and dismiss officers and agents; regulate the manner of the voting of stockholders; direct the manner in which shares shall be sold, transferred or forfeited; to establish from time to time rates and charges for the transportation of freight and passengers; to make, have and use a common seal, and alter the same at pleasure; issue bonds of not less than five hundred nor more than one thousand dollars; to borrow money upon the bonds of the company or otherwise, for the purpose of constructing said road, with power to mortgage the same to secure the payment of said bonds and loans with the interest thereon; provided, that at the first election of directors as herein provided, the directors shall regulate the manner in which stockholders shall vote.

SEC. 10. That said company may construct its road over or across any stream or body of water, road, highway, or across any other railroad and through any lands owned by individuals or corporations, and in all cases where lands belonging to individuals or corporations shall be taken by said company, it shall be lawful for the owner or agent of such person or corporation to appear before the District Court of the county where such lands are situate, when the damages claimed amount to one hundred dollars or more, or before the nearest Justice of the Peace when the damages are one hundred dollars or less; and said suit shall proceed and be conducted according to the laws in force regulating proceedings in the District Court and in Justices' Courts, as the case may be, and the question of damages shall be tried by a jury, sworn and empannelled as usual in said court, to assess the damages caused by taking such lands, and said jury in rendering their verdict shall take into consideration whether the enhanced value of the residue of the land belonging to such person or corporation has not been by means of said road increased in amount equal to the damages, and if so, they shall render a verdict in favor of said company, otherwise against it, for the amount of damages which he, she or they may have sustained; provided, that in no case shall said company be bound to pay costs, if it satisfactory proves that an amount equal to the damages assessed by the verdict of the jury was tendered to the party suing before the institution of the suit; and the payment of such damages, before or after a judgment, shall operate so as to vest in said company a full and complete title to such land not exceeding three hundred feet width.

SEC. 11. That said company, after they may have commenced receiving toll on any section of fifty miles of said road, shall be bound at all times to have the same in good repair, and a sufficient number of suitable carriages and vehicles for the transportation of persons and property.

SEC. 12. That said company, person or persons, shall, within sixty days after entering into the contract, as herein provided for, deposit with the Treasurer of the State of Texas, at least three thousand dollars in gold or silver, or evidences of debt of the State of Texas, or other good par stocks, as a guarantee that fifty miles or more of said road shall be constructed and in complete order for business within the term of eighteen months from the date of said contract, and if fifty miles or more of said road be completed according to the contract, then the Governor shall cause the said money or stocks to be returned to said company; and in case of a failure upon the part of said company, then such money or stocks to be forfeited to and become the property of the State of Texas; and in case of failure to deposit said amount within the time prescribed, said contract shall be null and void, and the Governor is hereby authorized to enter into another contract, as near as may be in the terms of this act with any other company or individuals for the like purposes.

SEC. 13. That it shall be the duty of the company, so soon as the track of said road may be selected, to cause the vacant lands to be surveyed into sections of six hundred and forty acres each, for thirty miles on each side of the same, and as soon as said company shall have completed fifty miles of said road according to the terms of the contract, they shall be and are hereby authorized to select and designate to the Governor an amount of land to be taken in alternate sections, so that no two sections so selected shall join each other except at one corner, equal to twenty sections for every mile of road so finished, which lands so selected and designated to the Governor, shall be patented to said company or their assigns, free of all costs; and in like manner for each and every section of said road, until the whole shall have been finished; provided, that said road shall cross the rivers Trinity, Brazos and Colorado as near the 32d degree of north latitude as practicable.

SEC. 14. That all of the vacant and unappropriated public lands belonging to the State of Texas, east of the 103d parallel of longitude west from Greenwich, and embraced between the parallel of latitude 31 degs., and 33 degs. north, and all of the vacant and unappropriated lands belonging to the State west of the 103d deg. of longitude, and embraced between the parallels of latitude 30 deg. 30 minutes and 32 deg. north latitude, be, and the same is hereby held in reserve by the State, for the purposes herein set forth, until the track of said road is located by said company; from and after which time there shall be held in reserve by the State, for the purposes above set forth, all of the vacant and unappropriated land belonging to the State, lying within thirty miles on each side of said road, until the same is surveyed and located in accordance with the provisions of the 13th section of the act; provided, that if there should not be a sufficient amount of vacant and unappropriated land belonging to the State embraced in the above last reservation to fully satisfy the amount of land to which said company may be entitled by virtue of a compliance with the provisions of this act, that the Governor cause to be issued by the Commissioner of the General Land Office, certificates for six hundred and forty acres each, to said company, for the balance they may be entitled to, which may be located upon any other vacant and unappropriated land belonging to the State, in such manner that no two sections shall join, except at one corner, at the proper cost and charges of said company or their assigns, which shall be patented to said company as other lands; provided that the alternate sections herein reserved to the State, shall so continue to be reserved to the use of the State until otherwise directed by law; and further provided, that said surveys shall be made in a square, and those adjoining the road shall front one mile thereon and no more, unless prevented by surveys made previous to the passage of this act.

SEC. 15. That should the said company fail at any time to finish the length of said road contracted to be completed within the term specified in the contract, the said contract, with the powers, privileges and immunities, together with such parts of the road as may have been constructed, with all its machinery and appurtenances, shall be forfeited to and become the property of the State of Texas, reserving, however, to said company the right to prosecute and defend all suits and rights, or liabilities which may have accrued or been incurred prior to such forfeiture.

SEC. 16. That should the said contract become forfeited, it shall be the duty of the Governor of the State to re-advertise and re-let the said road to other contractors, conforming himself in all respects as near as may be, to all the terms and conditions of this act, and such subsequent contractors shall be fully invested with all the powers, rights, privileges and immunities of the first contractors, and subject to the same terms and conditions.

SEC. 17. That the lands granted to said company by this act, shall be alienated by said company as follows:—one-fourth in six years, one-fourth in eight years, one-fourth in ten years, and one-fourth in twelve years, after the same shall have been selected and located by said company.

SEC. 18. That the sum of one thousand dollars, or as much thereof as may be necessary, be, and the same is hereby appropriated out of any money in the Treasury, not otherwise appropriated, to enable the Governor to carry into effect the provisions of this act.

SEC. 19. That this act shall not be so construed as to affect any right of location or entry, pre-emption right or survey heretofore acquired in the district of country reserved and set apart for the use of said road; and that this act take effect from and after its passage.

Art. XXI.—RAILROAD LEGISLATION OF MISSISSIPPI.

AN ACT to aid in the construction of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad in the State of Mississippi.

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the Legislature of the State of Mississippi*, That it shall be the duty of the Auditor of Public Accounts to credit, in his office the Internal Improvement Fund, with the net proceeds of the sale of five hundred thousand acres of public lands donated to this State for internal improvements, by the act of Congress of the 4th of September, 1841, whether the same have been received in cash, or in the bonds and coupons of the Planters' Bank, or in other funds.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted*, That the proceeds of the remaining portion of the said five hundred thousand acres of land unsold at the date of this act, be sold and disposed of, as is now provided for by law, and when the same shall be sold, the proceeds thereof shall be, in like manner, credited to the Internal Improvement Fund.

SEC. 3. *Be it further enacted*, That the proceeds of the sale of the sixty thousand acres of said land, loaned for the levee of the Mississippi River, under the provisions of the act of the 15th of March, 1852, and to be reimbursed to the Internal Improvement Fund from the swamp and overflow lands, be also credited to the Internal Improvement Fund.

SEC. 4. *Be it further enacted*, That all moneys rightfully belonging to the Internal Improvement Fund shall likewise be credited by the Auditor to the purposes of this act.

SEC. 5. *Be it further enacted*, That the money in the treasury, and which may hereafter come into the treasury, as contemplated by this act, be, and the same are hereby given, in aid of the construction of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad, and the Mississippi Central Railroad, as follows, to wit: One-third part thereof in aid of the construction of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad, from the Louisiana State line to the town of Canton, in the State of Mississippi; one-third part thereof in aid of the Mississippi Central Railroad, and the other third part in aid of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad, north of Canton, to the Tennessee River: *Provided*, That there be, and there is hereby appropriated out of said Internal Improvement Fund the sum of five thousand dollars for the purpose of surveying out and locating the line of the Gulf and Ship Island Railroad; and that the Governor of this State be, and he is hereby authorized and required immediately after the passage of this act, to appoint a suitable engineer, whose duty it shall be, so soon as practicable, to employ a suitable number of assistants, and proceed to survey out and locate the line of the Gulf and Ship Island Railroad, so as to secure connection with the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad, or to the Southern Railroad at a point that would best promote the interest of the State of Mississippi, and the interest of the stockholders of said railroad company: And when the survey herein provided for shall have been completed, it shall be the duty of said engineer to make out the proper profiles, maps, &c., and an estimate of the cost of building said road or route of survey as provided for as aforesaid, and return the same into the office of said Governor; and whenever such surveys, locations and estimates shall have been so made and returned as aforesaid, it shall be the duty of said Governor to issue his requisition upon the Auditor of Public Accounts in favor of said engineer, his agent or assignee, requiring said Auditor to draw his warrant on the State Treasury, payable out of said Internal Improvement Fund, in favor of said engineer, his agent or assignee, as the case may be, for such amount of money as said surveys and locations may have cost; not exceeding said sum of five thousand dollars; and provided further, that so soon as the stock invested by this act can be sold at par, the same is hereby invested in the said Gulf and Ship Island Railroad, upon the same conditions and under the same restrictions as provided for in this act, investing the same in the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad, and the Central Railroad: *Provided*, that such railroad company shall be regularly organized, and shall have subscribed five thousand dollars in reliable stock in said road: *Provided*, that a sum of money belonging to the Internal Improvement Fund, not to exceed one hundred thousand dollars, when collected, shall be reserved, subject to the requisition of the Governor, in favor of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad Company, in accordance with the provisions of an act approved 16th of March, 1852; and provided, that no stock shall be subscribed by the State in the Ship Island and Gulf Railroad, until the State stock in the other roads shall be sold; and then only an amount of stock equal to the whole proceeds of said sale shall be subscribed; and the first payment thereon shall be equal to the amount then paid on each share of the other stockholders.

SEC. 6. *Be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the Auditor of Public Accounts from time to time to issue his warrant or warrants on the State Treasury, in the proportion stated in the fifth section of this act, in favor of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad Company, and in favor of the President of the Mississippi Central Railroad Company, for the sum or sums to which they may be respectively entitled: *Provided*, That there shall be deposited with the State Treasurer a certificate or certificates of stock in the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad Company for the use and benefit of the Internal Improvement Fund, for an amount equal to the amount of such warrant or warrants as are in favor of said company: and provided, also, there shall in like manner be deposited in the State Treasury a certificate of stock in the Mississippi Central Railroad Company, for the use and benefit of the Internal Improvement Fund, for an amount equal to the amount of said warrant or warrants as are in favor of the said Mississippi Central Railroad Company.

SEC. 7. *Be it further enacted*, That no money shall be paid as part of the Internal Improvement Fund, to the said Gulf and Ship Island Railroad Company, until at least 25 per cent. of the said stock subscribed by individuals shall have been paid in cash; and after the said 25 per cent. shall have been paid, equal amounts shall be paid from time to time thereafter, by the individual stockholders, and by the State as part of the Internal Improvement Fund hereinbefore authorized to be invested, except the sum provided for the survey.

SEC. 8. *Be it further enacted*, That the Governor of the State for the time being be, and he is hereby authorized and directed to represent the State of Mississippi as a stockholder in said New-Orleans, Jackson, Great Northern and Mississippi Railroad Companies, to such extent as the stock subscribed for under the provisions of this act may entitle her under the charter of said railroad companies; and that the Governor report at each regular session of the Legislature the condition of said railroads as exhibited by the reports required to be made under their charters, and from such other sources of information as may be in his power.

SEC. 9. *Be it further enacted*, That all laws and parts of laws that are inconsistent with the provisions of this act be, and the same are hereby repealed, and that this act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Approved March 2, 1854.

* * *

Art. XXII.—MISCELLANEOUS.

IMPROVEMENT OF RED RIVER—NORTHERN COLLEGES—IMMIGRATION.

THE work of blowing out the falls at Alexandria, Louisiana, has been commenced. The plan adopted by the contractors is to deposit a tin canister, by means of a rope and guiding rod, on the surface of the rock to be removed, containing 50 to 150 lbs. of powder. To this is attached a wire, connected with a galvanic battery, which, at the pleasure of the operators, fires the powder. The explosion shatters the rock beneath; and the process is repeated nntil the concussions have displaced the rock to the desired depth. Neither drilling, dredging, nor dragging is employed. The channel will be made from 40 to 60 feet wide, instead of 30 feet, as before reported; but even from 40 to 60 feet will be too protracted for steamboat navigation. The softness of the rock and low stage of the water act as slight drawbacks on operations, but good progress is made with the work. A channel will first be blasted through the lower rapids, and the effect on the river above be ascertained, before going to work on the impediments above.

NORTHERN COLLEGES.—It has been ascertained, says the *Charleston Mercury*, that the opposition to Southern rights under the Constitution, at the North, is not confined to any one portion of the citizens, but men of all classes, creeds, and professions are engaged in traducing our people, and opposing the great measure of the day, the Nebraska bill. Among the most distinguished opponents of this measure—men who talk of disunion, if Southern rights are regarded—are professors of Northern Colleges. It becomes a question of some importance to the South, and parents especially, whether our people will continue to be degraded by the support of Northern Colleges, where, among other things detrimental to our peace and happiness, boys will be taught *not* to honor their parents.

We commend to the attention of our readers the following resolution, which was recently adopted at a meeting of the citizens in Richmond, Virginia:—

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this meeting, it is becoming and right in its members, in the people of Virginia, and in the people of the whole South, to encourage and patronize Southern schools, colleges, or institutions; and a just self-respect requires that Southern literature, in all its branches, should meet with the hearty support of all Southern men, in view of the gross slanders and misrepresentations which are disseminated by Northern periodicals and newspapers; and, further, that sound economy, as well as every feeling of independence and self-respect, dictate that the people of the South should patronize and support all those who import goods directly into our waters, and that goods manufactured in our midst, if to be had on fair terms, should always have the preference over such as are made elsewhere.

The Annual Report of the Secretary of State upon the subject of immigration to the United States shows the following results :—

Arrivals in 1853 : 1st quarter, 46,924 ; 2d do., 135,559 ; 3d do., 106,303 ; 4th do., 111,991. Males, 236,596 ; females, 164,481—total, 400,777.

Citizens of the United States who have been abroad and returned : Males, 28,572 ; females, 3,562—total, 32,134.

Total of arrivals : Aliens, 400,777 ; citizens, 32,134—excess of aliens, 368,643.

From Ireland : Males, 86,232 ; females, 76,249—total, 162,489.

From Germany : Males, 83,510 ; females, 57,125—total, 140,635.

From England : Males, 16,908 ; females, 13,445—total, 30,353.

Arrived at New-York, 294,818 ; at New-Orleans, 43,028 ; at Boston, 25,929 ; at Philadelphia, 19,211. Largest number 2d quarter, 135,559.

In 1852 : Total of arrivals, 398,470, including citizens. From Ireland, 158,462 ; Germany, 142,549.

In 1851 : Total of arrivals—aliens, 379,828 ; citizens, 29,367—total, 408,828. From Great Britain, 270,640 ; Germany, 72,602.

1853—Under five years of age, 29,858 ; under twenty years of age, 142,030.

Merchants, 12,802 ; mechanics, 17,397 ; farmers, 48,432 ; laborers, 43,006.

Art. XXIII.—MEDICAL STATISTICS OF THE CENSUS OF 1850.

It is proposed to collect these for publication in tabular forms, for each of the States, in answer to the memorials of Medical Societies, Conventions, &c. In this shape they will occupy 400 or 500 pages octavo. To prepare them by counties, and in greater detail, would require 2,000 pages. The following blank form has been prepared, and is published to invite remarks and criticisms from persons familiar with the subject of vital statistics. Such criticisms will not be too late at any time in the months of May or June, if received at the Census Office, Washington :—

Causes of Death.	*Whites.*	*Blacks.*	*Mulattoes.*	*Married*	*Single.*	*Place of Birth.*	*Occupation.*	*Period of Sickness.*	*Time of Disease.*
Insert all names of diseases.	Divided into males and females, as under 1 yr; between 1 & 5; 5 & 20; 20 & 50; 50 & 100; 100 & upwards.	Same divisions as whites.	Same divisions as blacks.			In the state of death; out of the State, & in the New-England States; in the Middle States; in the Southern; in the South-Western; in the Western; in Germany; in Ireland; in the rest of Europe; other Foreign, &c.	As in mechanics, agriculture, commerce, labor not specified, profession, &c.	Under 1 week; 1 week, & under 1 month; 1 month, & under 3 months, &c.	In winter, spring, summer, autumn.

DE BOW'S REVIEW:

A MONTHLY JOURNAL

OF

Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, Internal Improvements,
Statistics, etc., etc.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

Vol. XVI. JUNE, 1854. No. 6.

Art. I.—THE UNITED STATES MAIL.

Posts, for public use, are a modern invention. Correspondence is a result of advanced civilization. When the people are enslaved by serfish ignorance, and rarely leave the domestic hearth, the Government alone has occasion for writing letters. The earliest attempt at a postal system, of which we have an account, was made by Augustus, in the Roman Empire. The next is due to Charles V., who instituted a riding post through his vast dominions in Europe, in 1548, over which he appointed Leonard, Count of Thurn and Taxis, his Postmaster General. But posts, in the sense of mounted messengers, for the dispatch of Government orders, were in use in Persia, according to Herodotus, as far back as the days of Xerxes and Cyrus. They were also employed at various times by several of the European courts during the middle ages, and in subsequent periods. Foot posts, for similar purposes, were employed by the Incas of Peru at the time of the Spanish invasion.

Posting, as now in use on the continent, embraces, in addition to the transmission of letters and printed matter, the forwarding of travellers and their equipages—the business being monopolized, with one or two exceptions, by the government, and performed with a view to revenue. For this purpose, the postmasters are required to keep relays of horses at designated stations along the principal lines of travel, to forward travellers at specified rates of speed and fare. Great Britain and the United States are the only modern nations whose mail systems are disconnected with business of this description. As railroads and other travelling facilities multiply in the other European

States, it is presumed they will assimilate their postal establishments to those of these countries.

The United States Post-Office—a part of the wise system of government and laws under which we live—may justly be regarded by its citizens with pride. The extent of its ramifications, and the magnitude of its operations, are highly illustrative of the rapid development of our national resources. The tendency of improved and accelerated mails being to bring into close proximity, in point of social intercourse, the inhabitants of widely-separated States, thereby cementing the bonds of the Union, as well as to promote public intelligence and virtue by a rapid diffusion of information and interchange of sympathies, it also constitutes a source of lively gratitude to the Giver of all good. All classes are benefited by its beneficent ministrations. Civilization and social happiness attend its footsteps. Its mission is one of peace and good-will.

The colonial annals, our only source of information in the matter, show no traces of a mail or post-office on this side of the Atlantic prior to 1672. In that year, Governor Lovelace, of the New-York colony, in pursuance of instructions from the mother country, organized a mail, "to go monthly," between the cities of New-York and Boston. Eleven years subsequently the General Court of Massachusetts, in session at Boston, on the petition of sundry merchants, appointed John Heyward, the scrivener, postmaster of that place, "to take in letters and convey them according to their directions." In 1683 the benevolent William Penn, the proprietary governor of Pennsylvania, appointed Henry Waldy Postmaster of Philadelphia, with authority to send a weekly mail to New-Castle, Delaware, and "the Falls," the time of departure of which was to be "carefully published on the meeting-house door and in other public places." In 1692 the Virginia Assembly granted to Thomas Neal a patent constituting him postmaster general for that colony, and other parts of America, which, however, was never carried into effect, in consequence of the dispersed condition of the inhabitants. In 1700, the British Government authorized Colonel John Hamilton, of New-Jersey, to establish post-offices, and organize post-routes in its American colonies, for a period of twenty-one years; but his patent for this purpose was abrogated a few years thereafter, owing to the statute of Queen Anne of 1710, consolidating the colonial post-office with that of Great Britain and Ireland. The last-mentioned date is to be regarded as the commencement of the American Post-Office.

The next event of note in its history was the association with it of that great man, Benjamin Franklin, Colonel Spotswood, the British Deputy Postmaster General for the Colonies, having commissioned him Postmaster of Philadelphia, in 1737. At this date he was the editor of a newspaper on Market street in that city, the circulation and advertisements of which, we learn from his autobiography, were much enlarged by the appointment. On the death of Colonel S. in 1753, the Crown appointed him, jointly with a Mr. William Hunter, to the charge of the colonial establishment. At this time the aggregate length of post road in the country was but 1,532 miles, and there was no regular mail except between Boston and Philadelphia, although post-riders went occasionally as far south as Williamsburg, Virginia, sometimes extending their trips to Charleston, South Carolina. The author of Poor Richard—who was no doubt largely indebted to his then brilliant European reputation as a philosopher for this official elevation—proved, as might have been anticipated, active and efficient in his new position. He tells us in his life that, in 1763, in company with an invalid daughter, he travelled five months on a tour for the inspection of his northern post-offices; also, that he effected such improvements in the service as to enable the citizens of Philadelphia to write to Boston and get replies in three weeks, instead of six, the time previously required. Owing to a "freak of ministers," as he styles the proceeding, he was removed from the office in 1774, at which date the British institution on this side of the water may be considered as broken up.

On the 26th of July of the next year (1775) the great men composing the Colonial Congress, at its second session, held in the State House at Philadelphia, resolved to have a postal establishment of their own, and thereupon unanimously elected Dr. Franklin as its chief—an appointment, it is presumable, far more acceptable to the patriot than the one of which he had so unceremoniously been deprived. Contemporaneous resolves of this venerable convention show that they invested him with a very unlimited discretion in regard to the management of the institution. It appears, however, that he vacated the position soon after, in consequence, it is supposed, of being called to other trusts, and that Congress, in November, 1776, appointed as his successor his son-in-law and assistant in the office, Richard Bache.

Upon the adoption of the Articles of Confederation by the Colonies in 1778, the Confederated Congress passed resolutions setting forth the importance of the establishment, and their exclusive right to establish post-offices and post-routes. On the 28th of January, 1782, the same body elected Ebenezer Hazard, who had acted as inspector of the posts, and in that capacity had rendered important service, Postmaster General, to succeed Mr. Bache. The records of the time furnish but meagre details as to the operations of the concern during the official terms of those gentlemen, a period of over twelve years. Owing to the stagnation of business, resulting from the war of the Revolution, and the consequent inactivity of correspondence, its energies slumbered, as is shown by the fact that its gross yearly receipts averaged but about $30,000 per annum—a sum inferior to the product of a third-class city office at the present time. Other causes are believed to have contributed to this inefficiency, among which may be set down its exorbitant tariff of postages, and its inability, without the consent of the individual colonies, to arrest and punish mail robbers and other offenders against its laws. A more potent authority than that of the Confederated Congress was required to impart to it due vigor. The constitutional government, which went into effect in 1789, supplied this.

In September of that year Washington commissioned Samuel Osgood, previously a delegate in Congress from Massachusetts, to administer the office, which was then located in the cityof New-York, it having been customary to keep it where that body held its sessions. Thence it was taken to Philadelphia, in December, 1790, from which place it was removed to Washington, with the other executive bureaus, in 1802. We insert here the names of the individuals who have presided over the establishment since the organization of the Federal Government, and the dates of their appointment:—

Samuel Osgood, of Massachusetts, September 26, 1789.
Timothy Pickering, of Pennsylvania, August 12, 1791.
Joseph Habersham, of Georgia, February 25, 1795.
Gideon Granger, of Connecticut, November 28, 1801.
Return J. Meigs, of Ohio, March 17, 1814.
John McLean, of Ohio, June 26, 1823.
William T. Barry, of Kentucky, March 9, 1829.
Amos Kendall, of Kentucky, May 1, 1885.
John M. Niles, of Connecticut, May 25, 1840.
Francis Granger, of New-York, March 6, 1841.
Charles A. Wickliffe, of Kentucky, September 13, 1841.
Cave Johnson, of Tennessee, March 5, 1845.
Jacob Collamer, of Vermont, March 7, 1849.
Nathan K. Hall, of New-York, July 20, 1850.
S. D. Hubbard, of Connecticut, September 14, 1852.
James Campbell, of Pennsylvania, March 8, 1853.

It will be seen that Gideon Granger and Return J. Meigs, together, held office about twenty-two years, and that the combined term of Messrs. Niles, Francis Granger, and Hubbard, was less than two years.

When the new government commenced operations there were but seventy-five post-offices in the Union, and only 1,875 miles of post-road, made up of a seaboard line, through the principal towns between Wiscasset, in Maine, in Savannah, in Georgia, and a few intersecting cross posts, on much of which the mails were conveyed but once a fortnight. The entire annual revenue of the office was $37,395, and its expenditures $32,140. The following is an exhibit of its subsequent progress:—

YEAR.	Post-Offices.	Length of post road.	Annual cost of transportation.	Receipts.	Expenditures.
		Miles.			
1790	75	1,875	$22,081	$37,935	$32,140
1795	453	13,207	75,359	160,620	117,893
1800	903	20,817	128,644	280,804	213,994
1805	1,558	31,076	239,635	421,373	377,367
1810	2,300	36,406	327,966	551,684	495,969
1815	3,000	43,748	487,779	1,043,065	748.121
1820	4,500	72,492	782,425	1,111,927	1,160,926
1825	5,677	94,052	785,646	1,306,525	1,229,043
1830	8,450	115,176	1,272,156	1,919,300	1,959,109
1835	10,770	112,774	1,533,222	3,152,376	2,585,108
1840	13,468	155,739	3,213,042	4,543,522	4,718,236
1845	14,183	143,940	2,898,630	4,439,842	4,320,731
1850	18,417	178,672	2,965,786	5,499,985	5,212,953
1853	22,320	217,743	4,495,968	5,940,725	7,982,757

This statement makes it clear that a galvanic energy seized the establishment under its new control, its receipts having run up in the next fifteen years to more than half a million of dollars, and its expenditures to nearly as much. The entire results to the present show a development which the eminent forecast of Franklin probably never anticipated. Should its operations continue to enlarge in a like ratio during the next fifty years, how immense will be its ramifications, how stupendous its blessings to the teeming millions destined to inhabit our wide-spread borders at the opening of the coming century!

The mails have increased correspondingly. Fifty years ago but a few pounds of matter were sent in the largest mails; and only thirty years back the boot of a four-horse coach would hold the heaviest out-going mail at the city of New-York, whereas at present several tons of mail matter leave that place daily for each of the cardinal points of the compass. Probably more than one hundred millions of letters, and over one hundred and thirty millions of newspapers and pamphlets, pass through the United States post-offices annually. The free matter of Congress and the executive departments, sent and received through the Washington city post-office three years ago, (doubtless much greater now,) was estimated by its postmaster at six hundred tons per annum, the income from which, if taxable with postage, even at the present low rates, would have been $892,960. The quarterly returns of postmasters received at the department alone amount to one thousand bushels in a year.

Few striking occurrences are recorded in the annals of the infant establishment during the official terms of Messrs. Pickering, Habersham, and Gideon Granger, which lasted from 1791 to 1814. That they were talented men, is made apparent by their reports to Congress. The postal laws underwent a number of important revisions at their suggestions; and the above table shows that the mail service was vastly extended during the period. The last-mentioned gentleman, in a report made to Congress in 1810, complacently stated that a great increase of expedition had been given to the mails in the previous eleven years. He illustrated this by the following comparative statement of the times required at the two periods to dispatch letters and get answers:—

Portland to Savannah, and back, in 1799, forty days; in 1810, twenty-seven.

Philadelphia to Lexington, Ky., and back, in 1799, thirty-two days; in 1810, sixteen.

Philadelphia to Nashville, and back, in 1799, forty-four days; in 1810, thirty.

New-York to Canandaigua, and back, in 1799, twenty days; in 1810, twelve.

The present schedule time—thanks to the inventors of steamboats and railroads—stands thus:—

Portland to Savannah, and back, nine days.

Philadelphia to Lexington, and back, seven days.

Philadelphia to Nashville, and back, eight days.

New-York to Canandaigua, and back, one day.

In the early part of the same year, Mr. G. complained to Congress that he was cramped for office room. The building known as "The Hotel," situated on the site of the present establishment, was, therefore, purchased for its use, at a cost of $10,000—rather an insignificant sum contrasted with the expense of the splendid structure occupied by the office since 1841, $600,000. In "The Hotel" building alluded to were crowded also the city post-office and the patent-office.

In 1815, fifty per cent. increase was made, by direction of Congress, in the postage rates, to aid in defraying the expenses of the war of that period. This was taken off the next year.

In 1825, during the official term of that eminent Postmaster-General, Mr. McLean, a revised postal act, which remains at the present time the fundamental law of the department, was passed by the national legislature. Its details seem so plain, on perusal, as not to have required great skill or legal knowledge on the part of its framers, yet it had taken an experience of forty years, and numerous revisions, to perfect it.

Tantæ molis erat Romanam condere gentem.

Previous to this period, postmasters had transmitted their revenues to head-quarters in bank notes, sometimes substituting certificates of deposit. The Assistant Postmaster-General, who received, also disbursed these moneys, so that he was without effective check. This was obviously a cumbrous and hazardous mode of procedure; and it is exceedingly creditable to the accuracy and honesty of Abraham Bradley, who discharged the duty for more than a quarter of a century, that no serious losses occurred within the period. Mr. McLean improved the system by paying his contractors, to a large extent, in drafts on the postmasters on their routes. Mr. Barry, his successor, ameliorated the matter further by directing the postmasters to remit their balances, in all cases, in certificates of deposit, instead of bank notes, and that no funds should be paid out at the department except through checks, signed by two of its officers, acting separately, and each certifying to the correctness of the act.

During the six years (1829 to 1835) of the administration of Mr. Barry—the first chief of the establishment who took a seat in the President's cabinet—numerous improvements and great extensions were made in the postal service. For many of these he ordered large extra allowances to contractors, owing to which the establishment was unable to meet its engagements without a resort to loans from banks. This resulted in a tedious investigation of its affairs by a congressional committee. President Jackson, in consequence, transferred Mr. B. to a sphere of duty calling for less financial ability, and placed in the postal chair Amos Kendall, a man of singular clearness of intellect, fine administrative qualifications, and Herculean energy, who immediately set on foot measures destined promptly to elevate the credit and relieve the embarrassments of the institution.

We now arrive at an important epoch in the history of the establishment, viz.: its reorganization under the act of July 2, 1836, on a plan suggested by Mr. K. Prior to this date, the Postmaster-General had practically combined in himself the three functions of making contracts for the service, adjusting the accounts originating under the same, and paying the money. This system—if system it can be called—not only imposed on him a greater amount of labor than any single individual could properly perform, but was entirely at variance with that adopted for the War and Navy Departments, as well as unsafe, it being a recognized principle with regard to government finances that a public officer who has an agency in making contracts should have no connection with the settlement of claims arising under the same. The law of 1836, referred to, vested the settling duty in an officer styled Auditor, who was to be directly responsible to the Secretary of the Treasury, although charged to make periodical reports to, and receive instructions from, the Postmaster-General, in regard to sundry particulars bearing on the condition and mode of conducting the business of his office. This officer being competent to refuse the payment of illegal claims, although directed by the Postmaster-General to be allowed, constitutes, it will be seen, a salutary check on the latter functionary.

In December, 1836, the department was destroyed by fire. Its books and papers suffered but little damage in consequence.

On the 7th of July, 1838, Congress enacted its first statute on the subject of that very valuable, but very expensive, class of service—railroad—by declaring all such roads to be post-routes, and directing the Postmaster-General to have the mails conveyed upon them, provided he could do so on reasonable terms, and within limits prescribed by the act. This opened a new era in mail communication. I insert here an exhibit of the amount and cost of this class of service, as well as of steamboat, at several subsequent dates:—

Railroad.			Steamboat.		
Year.	Length of road. Miles.	Annual cost.	Year.	Length of route. Miles.	Annual cost.
1843	3,714	$531,752	1843	5,792	$264,773
1845	4,092	562,141	1845	7,625	279,307
1846	5,492	587,769	1846	8,373	229,464
1847	4,735	597,921	1847	8,856	236,743
1848	4,957	584,192	1848	8,280	262,019
1849	6,138	635,740	1849	10,169	278,650
1850	7,190	818,227	1850	10,826	313,943
1851	8,216	985,019	1851	13,411	421,692
1852	11,172	1,275,520	1852	13,785	505,815
1853	13,412	1,601,329	1853	16,329	560,572

To show the full cost of this service, a heavy sum is to be added for route agency and mail-messenger duty, made necessary in consequence.

It will be perceived from this statement, that railroad transportation has enlarged, of late, far more rapidly than steamboat, it having nearly quadrupled in ten years; also, that the expense for each mile of the former is about quadruple that of the latter.

Should this species of service continue to multiply in any such ratio for the next ten years—its present cost amounting to about one-third of the department's entire postage revenue—it is quite apparent that, at the rates of pay now allowed the companies, its entire income from that source will be required for that single item of expenditure.

March 3, 1845, is a notable day in the annals of the office, in consequence of the passage by Congress on that date of four acts materially affecting its policy. The first of these made it the duty of the Postmaster General, at all future lettings of contracts, to award the acceptances without other reference to the mode of transportation than might be necessary to the *due celerity, security, and certainty* of the mails. The second directed him to arrange the railroad routes under three classes, according to their respective importance as channels of mail communication, and prescribed a limit of compensation for each class. The third authorized him to contract, for periods not exceeding ten years, for transportation of the mails to any foreign port, giving the preference to the tenders of persons proposing to perform the service in steamships suitable for vessels of war, and claimable by government, when needed for that purpose, at valuation. The fourth abolished the franking privilege, and adopted, for the first time in the history of the establishment, a scale of letter postage based on weight—the just method—reducing the charge for a single letter, (limited to half an ounce,) going not over three hundred miles, to five cents, and ten cents for greater distances. It also prescribed an improved scale for newspapers and other printed matter, allowing the former to go postage-free to subscribers within thirty miles of the place of publication. Let us notice each of these enactments more particularly.

The one in regard to the mode of letting the mail contracts was designed to aid the department in carrying into successful execution the reduced postage tariff referred to, by preventing the application of any of its funds to the maintenance of mail-coach lines for the benefit of the travelling community. That it is serviceable in reducing the expense of transportation, is shown by the fact, that during the first four years of its operation (1845 to 1849) the curtailment under that head amounted to $328,000, although the post-roads were extended within the period 23,763 miles. Owing, however, to the latitude of construction, of which the terms "due celerity, certainty, and security of the mail," are susceptible, and difficulties connected with its execution, the principle embodied in this statute has not been stringently enforced in all cases.

The act concerning the classification of the railroad pay has materially aided the department in resisting exorbitant demands for such service. But, in view of the rapid augmentation of this class of contracts, and the large decline in its revenue under the present cheap rates of postage, it is obvious that the limits fixed thereby (ranging from fifty to three hundred dollars a mile per annum for length of road) are more liberal than the establishment will be able hereafter to measure up to, without leaning upon the national treasury—a recourse pointed out as objectionable by reasons of the most weighty character. The companies could not consistently, under the circumstances, complain if Congress should pass a more restrictive statute on the subject, because the conveyance of the mails does not materially increase their expenditures, while their stockholders, and the communities along their lines, are furnished thereby with important social, intellectual, and commercial advantages. A generous public spirit should dispose these gentlemen to forward the mails at prices merely remunerative.

The enactment in regard to foreign mails seems to have been intended by the national legislature as an incipient step towards the creation of a steam navy, in imitation of a policy extensively pursued in late years by Great Britain—the national defence and the protection of commerce in the emergency of a foreign war being the principal objects in view, the conveyance of the mails being subordinate. A fresh impulse was given to the enterprise by the act of March 3, 1847, instructing the Secretary of the Navy to contract for the transportation of the mails between New-York and Liverpool, and between New-York, New-Orleans, Aspinwall, San Francisco, and Astoria, in steamers constructed on the plan, and tendered by the owners on the conditions, above referred to, as contained in the statute of 1845. To aid in carrying these laws into effect, as well as the first contract made under their provisions, (New-York to Bremenhaven, in Germany,) Postmaster General Johnson, in the summer of 1847, dispatched to Europe his accomplished First Assistant, S. R. Hobbie, Esq., with authority to enter into international postal arrangements, who succeeded in effecting a treaty with one of the German States on terms very favorable to the citizens of this country. Under its articles, the city of Bremen, with which we have an extensive commerce, and which is closely connected with St. Petersburg, Vienna, Trieste, and other important cities on the continent, by railroads and other travelling lines, became the transatlantic exchange office for all mails sent by the new ocean line. The rates of postage adopted, which have since been largely reduced, curtailed one-half the previous expense for correspondence, and had the further merit of being left optional as to prepayment. The citizens of the United States and the thirty millions of Germany were thus enabled to correspond with each other without serious impediment. Both in a social and commercial point of view, this was a convention of vast importance. Postal treaties have since been effected with Great Britian and Prussia, and others are contemplated with France and Belgium. By virtue of the British treaty, their citizens and ours can exchange letters and newspapers with each other as conveniently as with those of their own countries. It also secures to the citizens of the United States wishing to forward correspondence to the ports of the most distant nations, the benefits of the extensive mail-packet system of that enlightened nation, the vessels of which convey regular mails to all parts of the civilized world. Under the articles of this treaty, our department now dispatches by the British steamers mail packages to all prominent ports in the West Indies, and on the northern and western coasts of South America. The Prussian treaty provides for a semi-weekly closed mail, which is sent by the British and American steamers, via England and Belgium. The cost of transmitting letters under these conventions (varying from ten to twenty-four cents for a single letter) is considerably greater than the spirit of the age, or the public convenience and necessities, make desirable; yet, in view of their effect upon our national reputation, the great intellectual, social, religious, and commercial benefits secured by them, and their utility in diffusing a knowledge of our free political institutions among the misruled multitudes of the Old World, it would be difficult to overrate their importance. It is proper to add, that an arrangement has just been made by Judge Campbell with the owners of a line of clipper-ships for a monthly conveyance of letters to Australia, at two cents each for the ocean postage, which, it is hoped, will prove the entering-wedge to a series of improvements of that class.

The United States Government has under contract at present the following ocean routes, at an annual expense of about two millions of dollars, three-fourths of which is defrayed by the Navy Department:—

New-York to Bremenhaven, via Southampton..	3,760	miles,	monthly	trips.
New-York to Havre, via Cowes..............	3,270	do.	do.	do.
New-York to Liverpool.....................	3,100	do.	fortnightly	do.
New-York to Aspinwall, New-Grenada	2,000	do.	semi-monthly	do.
New-York to New-Orleans, via Havana	2,000	do.	do.	do.
New-Orleans to Aspinwall	1,400	do.	do.	do.
New-Orleans to Vera Cruz, Mexico	950	do.	do.	do.
Charleston to Havana	669	do.	do.	do.
Panama to Astoria, via San Francisco.........	4,200	do.	do.	do.
Total	21,349	do.		

The portion of the postage act of 1845 abolishing the franking privilege, resulted in the resignation of one-third of all the postmasters in the Union in about twenty months. It operated with peculiar hardship on that class of officers, owing to the fact that their commissions were virtually diminished by the same bill in proportion to the decrease in their postage receipts which resulted from its passage.

From 1792 to 1845 the charge on a single letter—limited to one piece of paper—had ranged from six to twenty-five cents, under a graduated table of distances, and that on newspapers had stood at one cent for distances not over 300 miles, and one and a half cents for greater ones. The new tables of the latter year, while they made several changes calculated greatly to enlarge the circulation of newspapers and other printed matter, did not materially diminish the rates therefor. The decrease in the charge for letters, although not equal to that since effected, was a vast contribution to the convenience and happiness of the public, because it lessened the tax on an article which may properly be regarded in the present age as one of the necessaries of life. Under its operation the receipts for printed matter steadily advanced, whereas those for letters suffered a great decline during the first year, but partially recovered during the second, and steadily advanced thereafter.

On the 2d of March, 1847, Congress restored the franking privilege to all postmasters receiving a compensation not exceeding $200 a year. On the 3d of the same month that body authorized the issue of stamps for the prepayment of postage —a facility since so much resorted to that the sales of them amounted during the last fiscal year to $1,629,262. In the course of the same year the department extended its mail service over Texas. The act of August 4, 1848, directed a similar step in reference to California and Oregon.

In the summer of 1849 the clerical force of the General Post Office was considerably enlarged. This has stood at various periods thus: In 1795, four clerks; in 1810, twelve; in 1820, twenty-one; in 1830, forty-eight; in 1835, ninety-two; in 1840, ninety-five; in 1850, one hundred and thirty-eight; in 1853, one hundred and eighty-two. At first blush the increase in latter years would seem to exceed the ratio of enlargement of the service. But it is to be borne in mind that as the business of the establishment extends, and becomes complicated, new classes of entries and records are made necessary to furnish an adequate system of checks and references; also, that the frequent alterations in the rates of postage and commissions of postmasters authorized within the last ten years have operated to throw an immense amount of labor on its different bureaus.

The postage tariff of 1845 having proved popular and successful, Congress, on the 3d of March, 1851, in accordance with the suggestions of that very efficient Postmaster General, N. K. Hall, (whose motto seemed to be *omnis homines qui sese student præstare cæteris animalibus summa ope niti decet*,) further reduced the rate for single letters, prepaid, to three cents for distances not over 3,000 miles, and largely diminished that for newspapers, pamphlets, &c., sent to regular subscribers, but increased the charge on transient papers. The last-mentioned feature made the newspaper change obnoxious to the public, while the postmasters were dissatisfied because that portion of the bill varied the rates by a graduated scale of distances, which multiplied their labor. To remedy these defects, a new table for printed matter was adopted by Congress on the 30th of August, 1852, discarding the objectionable features referred to, as well as reducing the already cheap rates for such matter one-half, when prepaid quarterly or yearly. The effects upon the revenue resulting from the bills of 1845, 1851, and 1852, are exhibited by the following figures for the fiscal year ending:—

June 30,	1840,	letter postage,	$4,073,776 ;	newspaper postage,	$535,520
Do.	1845,	do.	3,666,231	do.	608,765
Do.	1846,	do.	2,881,697	do.	652,142
Do.	1847,	do.	3,198,957	do.	643,160
Do.	1848,	do.	3,340,301	do.	767,334
Do.	1849,	do.	3,882,762	do.	819,016
Do.	1850,	do.	4,575,663	do.	919,486
Do.	1851,	do.	5,369,242	do.	1,035,131
Do.	1852,	do.	4,226,792	do.	789,246
Do.	1853,	do.	4,473,227	do.	611,333

This, it must be granted, is not a favorable showing for the two last-mentioned acts; but as it is an admitted principle that increased postal facilities stimulate correspondence, as well as the circulation of newspapers, it is presumable that, as the resources of the nation become developed, and the people become accustomed to cheap postage, there will be a partial, if not an entire recovery in the matter. But, disregarding hypothesis, considerations connected with the contentment, cultivation, and convenience of the masses—important elements in the pyramid of national strength—clearly prohibit any retrograde movement on the subject.

Prior to 1825 an annual revenue from the establishment to the United States treasury seems to have entered largely into the policy of the Postmasters General, as will be perceived from the following statement of net profits paid over by them at periods when it was yet in its infancy:—

Pickering—December, 1793, to March, 1795	$47,499
Habersham—June, 1795, to September, 1801	363,310
G. Granger—December, 1801, to December, 1813	291,579
Meigs—March, 1814, to June, 1823	387,209
McLean—July, 1823, to December, 1828	13,466

Mr. McLean avowed it as his policy—obviously a good one—to keep the funds of the concern in active use in the extension and improvement of the routes, and his successors have generally pursued a similar course. Indeed, for the last twenty-five years, Congress, the Postmasters General, and the public, seem to have coincided in the view that the establishment should simply be self-sustaining, neither running in debt nor aiming at profits. But within a very recent date a few well-meaning people, moved by a wish to have the postage rates further cheapened, or to have more liberal rates of pay made to the railroad companies, have manifested a willingness to cast it to a considerable extent for support on the public treasury—a policy both impolitic and unnecessary; *impolitic*, because it is unjust to tax those of our citizens who seldom write letters for the correspondence of those who write many, and because the making the office depend on its own revenues for means to defray its expenditures has a potent tendency to create a watchful economy in its disbursements; *unnecessary*, because if Congress will compensate it, at the regular rates of postage, for the free matter sent through the mails, (say to the amount of a million and a half of dollars per annum,) will restrict by statute the railroad pay to rates barely remunerative, and will place the expense of the ocean contracts—at least so much of it as is not returned in postages—upon the Navy Department; also, if future postmasters general shall (as I am confident the present one intends doing) rigidly execute the requirement of the act of 1845, in regard to the mode of letting the contracts, there is little reason to doubt its ability to defray, unaided, its current engagements, as well as to make all needful enlargements and improvements in the service. During the few years just past, the organization of foreign routes, the extension of the inland ones over an immense amount of new territory, and the rapid augmentation of the railroad service, have vastly enlarged the department's outlays. A further increase under these heads may be anticipated. Yet it will be able, I am quite sure, on the conditions specified, to pay its own way, without leaning upon the national exchequer. To the weak argument, often made, that the post-office may as properly be thrown upon the government treasury for support as the War and Navy Departments, I have only to remark, that the former has a current revenue on which to lean, whereas the latter have no such resource.

The public are daily made familiar, to a greater or less degree, through contact with postmasters, mail-carriers, and other agents of the institution, with its external operations; but with its internal organization, constituting the main-spring and balance-wheel that move and regulate all its outer movements, they know but little. A few remarks on this head.

The General Post-Office is located in a beautiful marble edifice, built in Corinthian style, 204 feet in length, with wings 116 feet deep; situated half way between the Capitol and the President's house, on a gentle elevation, looking southerly towards the beautiful Potomac, about a mile distant. The department proper, including the Postmaster General, his three assistants, and 79 clerks, occupies the western portion and wing; the Auditor, with 103 clerks, the eastern. To the Postmaster General is intrusted, by the Constitution and laws, its executive, or administrative management. His principal functions are to establish post-offices, appoint postmasters, provide for the conveyance of the mails, exercise a general superintendence over the collection and disbursement of its funds, and make reports to Congress and the President of the state of its affairs. His assistants and clerks share no part of his authority, but are merely his ministerial agents to perform services which he has not time to attend to in person. The preparation of cases for his decision he commits to four distinct bureaus, styled appointment, contract, finance, and inspection, supervised respectively by an assistant or the chief clerk. The Bureau of Appointment, under charge of the First Assistant, Horatio King, Esq., aided by sixteen clerks, investigates all cases having reference to the establishment and discontinuance of post-offices, and the appointment or removal of postmasters and route agents. The Contract Bureau, superintended by W. H. Dundas, Esq., the Second Assistant, who has twenty-four clerks, attends to the arranging, advertising, and placing under contract the mail-routes, as well as altering the service on them, from time to time, as the public wants may require. It also has in charge the mail-messenger arrangements. The Bureau of Finance, under the supervision of the Third Assistant, John Marron, Esq., assisted by twenty-one clerks, manages so much of the fiscal operations of the establishment as the law does not devolve upon the Auditor. It prescribes the mode in which the postmasters shall pay over their balances, makes drafts for the collection and transfer of its funds, and issues warrants on the treasury to pay balances reported by the Auditor to be owing. This office also receives the quarterly returns of postmasters, and has charge of all business relating to dead letters and the issue of postage stamps. The Inspection Bureau, under the care of the chief clerk, John Oakford, Esq., aided by sixteen clerks, examines all reports from postmasters and others touching the performance of mail contractors, with a view to holding them to a faithful compliance with their obligations. It also makes periodical reports to the Auditor of all deductions from their pay for delinquent performance, and takes cognizance of all matters connected with mail depredations and the issuing of mail-bags, locks, and keys.

The office of the Auditor, which is not a bureau of the Post-Office Department, as above stated, but of the Treasury Department, collects debts due to the establishment, adjusts and settles the accounts of its mail-contractors, postmasters, and other agents, and, generally, all claims originating under orders of the Postmaster-General. No other executive office at Washington can compare with it in amount of labor. It numbers 103 clerks, appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury, classed as follows: Pay clerks, 12; examiners of postmasters' returns, 44; bookkeepers, 11; registers, 8; collection clerks, 18; miscellaneous, 10.

The following individuals have presided over this great bureau since its organization, viz.:—

Charles K. Gardner, appointed July 2, 1836.
Elisha Whittlesey, appointed March 19, 1841.
M. St. C. Clarke, appointed December 20, 1843.
Peter G. Washington, appointed March 29, 1845.
J. W. Farrelly, appointed November 4, 1859.
W. F. Phillips, appointed April 7, 1853.

Messrs. Whittlesey and Washington proved very efficient officers. The latter made valuable improvements in the mode of arranging and preserving its books and papers.

The department's agents, independent of an army of post-riders and clerks in post-offices, number nearly thirty-thousand, embracing 22,320 local postmasters, 209 travelling ones, (route agents on railroad lines;) 5,500 mail contractors, 900 mail messengers, (employed at railroad depots and steamboat landings;) 18 special and 26 local agents. Its inland mail-routes are divided into four geographical sections, and let to service for periods of four years. One of the sections being placed under contract each spring, the entire circle is kept in constant motion. Of the postmasters, those whose offices produce a revenue of $1,000 a year, of which there are 258, are appointed by the President and Senate, the others by the Postmaster-General. For the convenience of the contract and accounting business, the offices are further classified under the following denominations, viz.: Distribution, special, collection, draft, and deposit. The peculiar duty of the distributing portion, which are usually located at the gateways of States, or other large mail districts, is to consolidate, assort, and dispatch by the most direct lines, the packages coming to them from different quarters. The special offices, exceeding 3,000, are generally situated in retired locations, off any public route, and have to pay for their mail supplies out of what they make. Those styled collection—over 17,000—are under instructions to hand their revenues quarterly to the contractors furnishing them with the mail. The draft offices—about 1,000—are directed to retain their postages to meet special drafts made on them by the authorities at Washington. Those denominated deposit—nearly as many—place their balances, periodically, in designated depositories.

The present energetic postal Chief, and his able Assistants, manifest a commendable solicitude to infuse the utmost practicable vitality into every branch of the business intrusted to their supervision. The office of Postmaster-General, although connected with much power and patronage, has peculiar trials, owing to the fact that no man, however well-meaning and sagacious, can dispense this patronage to the satisfaction of all; or, however watchful and energetic, prevent, amid the multitude of agents attached to the postal service, numerous daily deficiencies, and malpractices in duty, which give rise to much public annoyance, and bring down on the head of the department loud complaints, both on the part of the press and of individuals. The fact that Judge Campbell took charge of the establishment at a period when its expenditures considerably exceeded its revenues, whereby he is precluded from giving effect to many meritorious applications, from different sections of the Union, for increase of mail facilities, must, I judge, have augmented the ordinary difficulties of the position.

Several reports from the department to Congress, within a few years past, have alluded to serious defects in our postal system—particularly its arrangements for mail billing, mail distribution, and securing the accountability of postmasters. In a small, compactly-settled country like Great Britain, from which we derived our theory on these subjects, it is easy to apply a proper corrective, which was accordingly done there a few years ago. But owing to the widely-scattered condition of the population of the United States, and the constant changes going on in the locations of its post-offices and the direction of its routes, insurmountable obstacles have opposed themselves to all plans suggested for reforming the matter on this side of the Atlantic. A serious additional impediment to the efficiency of the American Office grows out of the fact that it has not, in all cases, as the British and French postal departments have, entire control over the times of arrival and departure of the railroad mails.

Notwithstanding, however, this opening for improvement, the operations of the General Post-Office constitute, as hinted in the outset of this article, on account of their vigor and magnitude, a subject for general congratulation. The New-York evening papers are perused the next afternoon in Cleveland, Ohio, and in Weldon, North Carolina—the former 671, and the latter 451 miles distant; and the following day in Chicago and Charleston. Similar instances of celerity in the dispatch of the mail-bags, in other quarters of the country, are numerous. Almost the entire distance from Maine to Texas, and from Massachusetts to Iowa, immense quantities of letters and printed matter are daily forwarded by its agencies, with all the velocity attainable by the iron horse and steamboat paddle. A regular mail conveyance, by coach and horseback, is made once a month from the banks of the Rio Grande to those of the Missouri, about 2,000 miles, through districts till recently settled only by half-breed Indians and imbecile Mexicans. From the latter point the post-riders again periodically take up the line of march another 2,000 miles, over boundless, uncultivated prairies and gigantic mountain ranges, rarely trodden, except by the foot of the red man, to our remote possessions on the Pacific, fructifying the soil in their passage with the seeds of intellectual, social, and moral culture, as well as potently aiding to dispel the gloom of savage barbarity. The railroad and steamboat lines conveying the department's mails, if formed into a single route, would girdle the globe; and its ocean routes, if united in like manner, would nearly encompass it again. The tide of enlightened political sentiment, wafted to the Old World by the latter, promises a mightier influence in emancipating its masses from the thraldom of despotic civil institutions, than revolutionary bayonets or imperial armies ever effected.

Art. II.—STATISTICAL CONGRESS OF NATIONS AT BRUSSELS.

[We have translated from the work of Otto Hübner, published in 1853, an account of the Statistical Congress which was held in September of that year at Brussels, and at which a large number of delegates were present, representing twenty-six countries. The idea of this Congress was originated at the World's Exhibition in London by the different statisticians present, and the charge of bringing it together was undertaken by M. Quetelet, President of the Belgian Central Commission of Statistics, who issued a circular letter, in which he detailed a plan to serve as a basis of future operations.*]

The Congress met at the Saloon of the Royal Academy of Science and Medicine, on the 19th September, 1853.

M. Quetelet, President of the Central Commission of Statistics of Belgium, took the chair.

The President congratulated the members of the "Commission Centrale," which had convoked this Assembly, that their

---

* 1. Organization of statistics, population, territory, estates, and emigration.

2. Statistics of agriculture, of manufactures, &c., and of commerce.

3. The laboring classes, the indigent, education, crime and its suppression, &c.

The object of the first is to introduce a uniform plan of official statistics to be adopted by all nations. M. Quetelet furnishes some details which are valuable. He says in Belgium, as in England, the census is taken on a fixed day, and the person is recorded in the place where he spent the previous night. In France, Austria, Sardinia, and the Zoll-Verein, &c., they distinguish between the population of right and of fact. Nothing is more variable than the time fixed for the enumeration. In France and in England it is in April, in Norway in November, in Denmark in February, in Belgium in October, in Germany in December. (In the United States in June.) December would seem to be most favorable, as removals are then less frequent, families are less dispersed, and the floating population least. In England, the United States, Norway, Holland, and Sardinia, the census is taken decennially; in France, quinquennially; in the German States, triennially; in others, as in Belgium, irregularly. The decennial system, for all nations, recommends itself as the best. The name, surname, civil state, age, profession, nationality, religion, &c., is generally taken. In Belgium are added labors had been crowned with such success, and invited the Congress to organize itself.

The President, after having expressed his gratitude, stated that he was compelled to confess that, if Belgium had been

language, number of floors or parts of the house, adjacent gardens, protection against fire, the degree of instruction or ignorance; in France, the number of aliens, of deaf mutes, of blind, infirm, &c. M. Quetelet submits the following propositions, among others, to the Congress, and we note them in proof of the extent to which statistical investigations are being pressed in Europe, and the lively interest which is taken in them:—

1. Enumerations of population should be made by name, and based on the principle of population *in fact*. Nevertheless, special documents or other sources of information can be consulted in order to establish the population *of right*, according to the circumstances of the case.

2. These enumerations should take place every ten years, the first being fixed for the 31st December, 1860.

3. There should be a separate schedule for each family or household.

4. Special agents, charged with distributing, and again collecting these schedules, should make it their duty to see that they are accurately filled up, or else should fill them up themselves, according to the best information they can obtain.

5. The enumeration by census should comprise—

a. The Christian and surname, place of birth, language spoken, religion, civil condition, profession or means of livelihood, length of residence in locality; children who receive common school, middling, or a high degree of education; families or individuals who receive aid from eleemosynary institutions or the municipal authorities; classification of houses according to their number of stories, or the portions in the occupation of each family; the gardens contiguous to each house, and insurances against loss by fire.

b. Diseases and apparent infirmities—those blind in both eyes or of one only; deaf and dumb—those who are removed from their families and reside in public or private establishments; idiots; individuals affected in any way, or afflicted with a curved spine, the *loss* of an arm, of a leg, club-footed, or other apparent diseases or infirmities.

6. It will be necessary that the abstract of the census returns of each country should be made according to a uniform plan, in order that the returns may be in a condition to compare them with each other.

7. It is indispensable that a registry of the population should be kept in each municipal jurisdiction. Each family should occupy a separate page of it, and the first memoranda made should be, according to the notes furnished by the general census. All changes which take place in the number or condition of the members of each family should be accurately noted therein. Such municipal regulations can be adopted for verifying any change of residence as will preserve a perfect harmony between the real changes and those noted in the register.

8. The progress of civil condition must be ascertained every year. It comprises—

a. Births according to sex, distinguishing between those which are legitimate and illegitimate; twins, still-born, deaths, marriages and divorces—all by months.

b. Deaths, according to age and according to months.

c. Deaths, according to diseases and months.

d. Marriages according to age, and distinguishing the civil condition of the parties marrying.

In regard to certain queries, the following rules should be observed:—

Marginal notes should be made to the names of natural children, to indicate such as have been acknowledged or rendered legitimate by legal process.

Still-born children should be distinguished into such as died before, during, or immediately after accouchement.

The table of deaths according to age should indicate, in addition to the sex, the civil condition of the deceased. The ages at the time of death, as well as those of the living, as established by the census, should be minutely detailed—for each so happy as to make greater progresses in statistics, she owed it to the voluntary assistance of her Government, and especially to the Minister Piercot, who had done every thing in his power to remove the various obstacles which always appear at the beginning of such a difficult work. He had also afforded every facility in calling together this Congress, and accommodating its honorable members. Therefore, he (Quetelet) would allow himself to propose that M. Piercot might be elected as honorary President of this Congress.

Minister Piercot returned thanks in the name of his Government, which had been here so highly honored in his person. Immediately after the Belgian Independence, the Government had considered it its duty to do everything in favor of the promotion of administrative statistics, because hereby all departments of the administration would be elucidated. The learned and excellent members of the "Commission Centrale" deserved the thanks, not only of their own country, but also of all friends of statistics and national economy. However, their greatest reward was the ready acceptance of their invitation by so many excellent and learned men of different countries and nations.

Count Arrivabene (of Belgium) said, that as the bureaux had been formed of the members of the "Commission Centrale," it would be very judicious to elect Vice-Presidents, by which the other countries could be also represented. He proposed, therefore, to nominate as Vice-Presidents: for Great Britain, Mr. W. Farr; France, M. Villermé; Prussia, M. Dieterici; Germany, M. Mittermaier; Netherlands, M. Ankersdyck; Spain, M. Ramon de la Sagra; Austria, M. Czoernig; Italy, M. Bertini.

This proposition was accepted by acclamation, and the elected gentlemen took their seats at the bureau.

The President said, that before the beginning of the discussion, he would give, in a few words, the reasons and ideas which had induced the "Commission Centrale" to convocate the present Congress. Everybody must have been undoubtedly surprised at the little harmony and unison in the statistics of the different countries, and also at the impossibility of comparing them with one another. These difficulties had caused a

---

month up to the 12th inclusive, then for each three months up to the age of two years, and from the third year the age must be specified by year and month, it being necessary to indicate the months in order to be enabled to classify the deaths according to scales of ages, and to prevent the transposition of one scale for another.

9. There should be established a uniform nomenclature of the causes of death, which should be applicable to all countries. This nomenclature, the importance of which will be readily acknowledged, may form the subject of future discussion, and be decided upon at the next Statistical Congress.

great loss of time, and led to deplorable errors. At the great Exhibition of London it had dissappointed many that there had no arrangements been made by which the different nations would have been enabled to make comparisons between their own and foreign productions. This would have been easily prevented by a previous assumption of equal and uniform signs and expressions, which comprehend and condense a great number of ideas and facts. Many national economists and statisticians had felt this deficiency, and in their special meetings resolved to assemble the next year at Brussels. He regretted very much that many of them had been prevented from being present.

The "Commission Centrale," encouraged by so many excellent savants, had taken up with the greatest pleasure the resolution which now had produced such splendid results. Governments and learned societies of twenty-six different countries had sent their ablest men. This day would be the most remarkable in the annals of statistics.

M. Bergsoë (of Denmark) stated that twenty years ago there were neither official statistics nor books containing tables to be found in the whole kingdom of Denmark, as the absolute Government, which at that time was in full sway, avoided everything that could afford to the people an insight into the interior affairs of the country. Nobody knew the value of exports and imports, the revenues, expenditures, public debts, etc., for the Government covered everything with a thin veil. But as soon as there was a Diet, statistics were ordered immediately to be made, and in 1833 the Statistic Central Commission, under the ægis of the celebrated statesman, Jonas Collins, was established. In 1835 to 1849 eighteen great volumes had been published, containing tables on almost every important subject of statistics. However, since 1849, when Denmark received a liberal constitution, the old Central Commission had been abolished, and a new permanent Central Bureau under his direction erected, which had published already ten volumes. Private statistical associations were not to be found, with the only exception, perhaps, of the Royal Medical Society of Copenhagen, which had a permanent Committee for medical statistics.

M. Dieterici (of Prussia) said, that official statistics in Prussia go far back, and are more than a century old. Frederic William I. commenced to require lists of population, and under Frederic the Great the comptrollers of taxes were required to count the population of the cities, and the provincial counsellors that of the rural districts. Since 1748 these lists exist, with the only exceptions of the years of war. The Minister Stein ordered, in 1805, the establishment of a Statistical Bureau, but the war in 1806 prevented this laudable plan from realization. In 1810 the present bureau, under the immediate direction of the Chancellor of the State, was founded, and the best statistician of that time, M. Hoffmann, placed at the head. A topographical department still exists, and, by the desire of A. V. Humboldt, a meteorological, under the direction of the renowned meteorologist, Prof. Dove, was added to it. Recently the Almanach-Deputation had been connected with it. Eight volumes were published, and three others were in press. Every fortnight a journal is published, of "Communications of the Statistical Bureau."

M. V. Herrmann (of Bavaria) then gave a short sketch of the statistics of Bavaria. The Minister of Commerce had formed in his department a special bureau for statistics. A commission as in Belgium did not exist, only the Minister in connection with the Secretary of the Statistical Bureau deliberated on the necessary formularies and schedules. He specified the way by which the statistics were received from the different provincial offices, which, however, bore no difference from other countries.

Baron Czoernig (of Austria) stated that in Austria, by orders of the Emperor Francis, in 1828 a Statistical Bureau had been established, with the special arrangement, that all branches of the administration should be obliged to report their statistics. It was associated with the High Court of Calculations, which latter offered the best and most valuable materials. Every year there were tables prepared, which gave the results of the administration in figures, and which were received lithographed from the respective places. Baron V. Kubeck, by combining the scientific with the merely administrative department, created in 1840 the direction of the present administrative statistics. A short time after, he (Czoernig) had the honor to be placed at the head of it, and to prepare the materials which serve for the official statistics of Austria. His greatest attention had been directed to such branches of political economy as agriculture, metallurgy, industry and commerce. Having finished this, he had proceeded to the publication, adding, besides lists of population, tables of education and schools, and criminal statistics. Not before had any Austrian statistics been published. But since 1844 the publication of all statistics were permitted, even of those which contain administrative accounts. The direction of the Statistical Bureau was connected in 1848 with the Ministry for Commerce and Public Works. Besides the yearly official statistics, there are published for the last four years, in monthly or quarterly series, Reports on Foreign Statistics. The same contain reports from the Austrian Consuls, especially from those in the Orient, and also articles on home-matters, which did not find a place in the official statistics. Also, the lists of imports, exports, and the course of foreign trade published yearly. The volume of 1852 is now in press. The "*Austria*," a national-economical journal, has been founded by the Ministry of Commerce for statistical purposes. Finally, the great ethnographical chart, on which he had been for ten years working, and of which he had the honor to present a copy to the Congress, had not been published, as the text was not yet completed.

M. Legoyt (of France). In France every ministry publishes its own statistics. However, some of them have Statistical Special Bureaux. Everybody knows that those of the Ministry of the Interior, under the superintendence of an excellent statistician, M. Arondeau, compiled civil and criminal statistics. The Ministries of Finance and Commerce have also their bureaux. For the latter, in 1834, a General Bureau for Statistics, under the direction of the celebrated M. Moreau de Ionnès, was established. Here are the collections of all national-economical facts and materials for the whole country to be made. Since that time it has published about thirteen volumes on various objects, as on Population, Administration, Finance, Commerce, Industry, etc. A fact touched already upon by the prefects has struck him, viz.: that there has been always wanted informations from the Maires (Marshals), which they could not give, having usually not the time, if they had the necessary intellect to make the researches. Therefore he had considered it to be more advantageous to associate private efforts with official, and had made proposals, which had been accepted by the government in the decree of the 1st January, 1853, which orders that in every county a Statistical Commission shall be established, the members of which are to be nominated by the Prefect. This commission is divided into commercial sub-commissions. Every one of the latter must exactly answer to all questions on the schedules. The results are then to be delivered to the County Commission, which debates in connection with the most intelligent men the doubtful points. After that critique all schedules from the sub-commission are to be composed, and after that the blanks in the county schedules filled up. If the County Commission has found no defects or errors, the whole report will be sent to the Sub-Prefect. This officer submits it to a double investigation, the first by the Central Commission of the Arrondissement, the other, in all agricultural matters, by the Chamber of Agriculture. Hereupon the various county schedules are to be transmitted to the Prefect, who submits them to a last examination, compiles them, and sends the results to the Minister of the Interior. The General Bureau of Statistics corresponds by the medium of the Minister with the Prefects, in order to receive from those officers all administration documents. In this way the Prefects assign to the commission the reports on pouplation, foundlings, beggars, etc. In the bureau there were received, besides the official reports from the Prefects, also such as could not be collected by official persons, and which the county commissaries must gather from private persons.

Mr. William Farr (England) said he would state, that he was sent by the Registrar General, with the consent of his government, to be present at this Congress, and also was ordered to report on the transactions of the same. This communication, joined by that he had to make in behalf of the English statisticians, were the best testimony of Old England's desire to act in perfect harmony with other States for realizing those desired improvements in the present statistical system. A Congress of Statisticians of all Europe, which is engaged in observing and dismembering the social phenomena, is a benefit to all mankind—a benefit which they owe to the enlightened sense of the Belgian Government, which was worthily represented by the President, (Quetelet,) a man who had worked so long on the field of statistics, and whose character, as well as his scientific works, were esteemed of all statisticians. He then proceeded to give a sketch of the statistical institutions of England. From 1801 to '31, the census of the population had been taken, under the direction of Mr. Rickman, every tenth year. Since 1841, the same has been executed by three commissaries, of which one was the Registrar General. The difficulties in taking the census were very great, as the English population was spread over one hundred and seventy-six islands. He gave a description of the census of 1851, of which three volumes had been published. In regard to private statisticians, he mentioned, in very high terms, the names of Porter and McCulloch.

The President begged one of the two representatives of Saxony to give some information relating to the statistics of his country.

M. Weinlig, (Saxony.) In the kingdom of Saxony the official statistics are concentrated in a bureau connected with that section of the Ministry in which he had the honor to preside. The Statistical Bureau is under the immediate direction of a bureau chief. In two years there have been published three volumes. Privite statistical societies did not exist. All branches of the administration must contribute their statistics.

M. Ramon de la Sagra (Spain) was very sorry that he must confess that Spain was far behind other countries in regard to statistics. A statistical bureau did not exist at all, and there had never been any census. Registers of births, deaths, and marriages, had been kept by the priests, and these were the only means to make an estimate of the population. However, the Minister of the Interior was now making serious efforts to establish a Statistical Bureau. M. Pascual Madoz, member of the Chamber of Deputies, had published a very interesting work, entitled, "Dictionnaire Géographique et Statistique de l'Espagne," in 16 volumes. He had sent commissions in all parts of the country to collect materials, and besides, he had received from the government all possible assistance. On Cuba, very interesting statistics have been published. There were two different kinds of documents, one for the city of Havana, the other for the whole island. They commenced with the year 1817, and have been continued until now. The export tables are modelled after those of the United States of North America.

M. Mittermaier (Grand Duchy of Baden) said, that he was enabled to state that his little country stood behind no other one relating to statistics. Baden had been the first German State publishing criminal statistics. For fifteen years they had assumed the French statistical system. Every Ministry furnishes its statistical results. Especially had the Minister of Finance published in the past year, very estimable reports on taxes, commerce, riches, &c., of the Grand Duchy. Not only the government, but also newspapers, had offered most interesting statistical materials. In the Ministry of the Interior, recently, a Statistical Bureau had been established. He concluded by giving the forty-five questions which the Communalities had to answer.

Chevalier Bertini (Sardinia) stated, that Charles Albert established at the beginning of his reign (1820) a commission for statistics for the continental provinces. With this commission corresponded thirty-seven juntas, or provincial commissions, every one of which consisted of six members. Four large volumes had been published, and, besides these, some reports from the Ministry of Justice. The Almanach-General, appearing every year, contained very interesting statements on population, industry, commerce, &c.

M. V. Baumhauer (Holland.) The government of Holland founded (1826) a Statistical Bureau, which has published two volumes, especially on population. Besides that, it has collected the existing documents of births, deaths, and marriages, since the year 1804. In 1830 it was abolished. Towards 1836, a third volume, as a supplement to the two preceding ones, made its appearance. Since 1826, Professor Gobatto, of Delft, has, by the desire of the King, regularly published a year-book, which contains reports on births, deaths, marriages, &c., and also on criminal statistics. Of the census of 1840, a publication has been given, in a small octavo volume. In 1848, the liberal Ministry founded two statistical bureaux, one for the Ministry of the Interior, the other for that of the Finances. There is no general bureau.

M. Siok (Wurttemberg.) Wurttemberg had a Bureau of Statistics and Topography, which formed a subdivision of the Department of Finances. The Topographical Bureau had just published a topographical atlas of the kingdom, on the scale of 1.50,000, and a general map of 1.200,000. Thirty-three volumes had been published.

M. Meyer von Knonau (Switzerland) stated, that Switzerland possessed, in the proper sense, no Statistical Bureau; but there had been done a good deal in favor of statistics, especially since 1830. Reports, more or less detailed, had been received from nearly all the Cantons, especially from Basle, St. Gall, and Zurich. Philanthropic and industrial societies had also published very interesting reports. Of all Cantons, Zurich had the oldest census on population; for there is a nominal list which had been made two hundred and twenty years ago, and which contains estimable reports on statistics, as well as on history.

M. D'Avila (Portugal) said, he would not, as the regulations forbid long speeches, mention the statistical works of Portugal of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and of the commencement of the eighteenth century. Since the introduction of the representative system, and especially after its reconstitution in 1834, the government had been compelled to organize a Statistical Central Committee. Since 1835, four census enumerations had been made, viz.: in 1838, 1843, 1849, and 1851. That of 1851 is nearly finished.

(The resolutions of the Convention will be published hereafter.)

Art. III.—EDUCATION AND CRIME AT THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH.

While resting for an hour or two, on a hot summer day of the past year, in a village in the State of Tennessee, we met with a periodical, the title of which we have forgotten, but which contained a letter from a Methodist divine of this country, who, at the writing, was travelling in France. The letter, written some two years ago, was one of the most finished and interesting productions we ever read. The gentleman had been making some examinations into the census statistics of that country; and the conviction seemed forced upon him that in those rural districts of France in which the peasantry obtained the benefits of education, crime was much more common, than in those districts in which the peasantry were not educated.

He stated this as a startling fact, confirmed by the returns of several years; and was lamenting it as a condition of things for which no friend of education or morality could assign a rational cause.

Since reading that letter, we have been awaiting the complete synopsis of the census returns of our own country for the year

1850, in order to see if the exhibit in France would be confirmed by the facts here.

We present some tables collated from the census reports, without comment. They certainly furnish a nut for philosophers and moralists to crack. It may not be amiss to remark, however, that if the census returns can be relied upon as correct, we Southern people, who are often twitted for being deficient in our moral perceptions, and our regard for the laws, need not blush at the exhibit. The "land of steady habits" is no longer with the New-Englanders and the people of the free States.

The following table shows the population, number of churches, number of persons over twenty years of age who cannot read, and the number of convicts confined in penitentiaries on the 1st June, 1850. The table comprises ten Northern and ten Southern States:—

ITEMS OF THE CENSUS OF 1850.

STATES.	Population.	No. of Churches.	Natives unable to read or write.	No. of Criminals.
Maine	583,169	945	2,134	62
Massachusetts	994,514	1,475	1,861	301
New-Hampshire	317,976	626	945	77
Vermont	314,120	599	616	39
Connecticut	370,792	734	1,293	145
Rhode Island	147,045	228	1,248	24
New-York	3,097,394	4,134	30,670	1,080
New-Jersey	489,555	813	12,787	135
Pennsylvania	2,311,786	3,566	51,283	302
Delaware	91,532	180	9,177	6
	8,718,383	13,390	112,814	2,171
Maryland	583,034	909	38,426	200
Virginia	1,421,661	2,383	87,383	188
North Carolina	869,039	1,795	80,083	14
South Carolina	668,507	1,182	16,460	19
Georgia	906,185	1,862	41,261	85
Alabama	771,623	1,373	33,853	23
Mississippi	606,526	1,016	13,447	81
Louisiana	517,762	306	18,339	160
Tennessee	1,002,717	2,014	78,114	187
Kentucky	982,405	1,845	67,359	141
	8,329,459	14,685	474,725	1,098

It is here seen, that though the ten Southern States have nearly half a million less population, they have over a thousand more churches than the ten Northern States, though among the latter is included that portion of our Union most famed for religion and morality.

With nearly an equal population, the ten Northern free States had twice as many criminals as the ten Southern slave States, though the latter had four times as many persons unable to read or write.

In this estimate, I have not included "foreigners," except in the item of population. The tables of "education" and "crime" are taken from the "native" population alone. It may be said that I have selected these tables from those Northern States having the largest seaports in the Union, where vice and crime most abound. But, unfortunately, the tables present the same image, even when we strike out New-York and Massachusetts, containing New-York and Boston, the two cities where the "foreign" criminals largely exceed the "native." For instance, examine the following table:—

STATES.	Population.	No. of Churches.	Natives unable to read or write.	Criminals.
New-Hampshire	317,976	625	945	77
Vermont	314,120	599	616	39
Connecticut	370,792	734	1,293	145
Rhode Island	147,545	228	1,248	24
	1,150,433	2,187	4,102	285
North Carolina	869,039	1,795	80,083	14
South Carolina	668,507	1,182	16,460	19
Georgia	906,185	1,862	41,261	85
Alabama	771,623	1,373	33,853	23
	3,215,354	6,212	171,657	141

I have here selected four Southern Atlantic States having large seaports, and contrasted them with the four Northern States most removed from the influence of large cities. The population of the former is about three times that of the latter, and the number of churches present about the same ratio. But the number who cannot read and write is fifty times as great in the four Southern States as it is in the four Northern States, while the number of criminals is twice as great in the latter as in the former, though having only one-third the population. The same remarkable feature holds continuous when we contrast New-Hampshire and Connecticut with Mississippi and Missouri, as will appear from the following table:—

STATES.	Population.	No. of Churches.	Natives unable to read or write.	Criminals.
New-Hampshire	317,976	626	945	77
Connecticut	370,792	734	1,293	145
	688,768	1,360	2,238	222
Mississippi	606,526	1,016	13,447	81
Missouri	682,044	880	34,917	108
	1,288,570	1,896	48,364	189

Here, where we contrast with the pattern States of New-England a portion of the Mississippi Valley, the reputation of whose white population for obedience to the law has been hitherto held in but slight comparative estimation, we find that while the proportion of those who cannot read or write is ten times as great in the two slave States as in the two free States, the number of criminals in the former is in proportion only one-half what it is in the two latter. Here are some contrasts:—

	Population.	Unable to read.	Criminals.
Connecticut	370,792	1,293	145
Virginia	1,421,661	87,383	188
Massachusetts	994,514	1,861	301
Tennessee	1,002,717	78,114	187

These facts are merely presented as food for reflection, for we base no theory upon them. There may be errors, but scarcely such important ones as would make the census returns worthless upon the heads treated of.

Some interesting tables might be prepared from the criminal calendar, showing that in Boston and New-York the foreign population, though constituting a very small portion of the population of the States, yet furnishes much the largest portion of criminals. Our article, however, is now longer than we designed it should be, though it may furnish to those who may read it some curious thoughts.

Art. IV.—EMANCIPATION IN JAMAICA—ITS WORKINGS.

The position of Jamaica, occupying geographically so prominent a place in what is fast becoming the highway of nations, and already resorted to by British and American steamers trading towards the Isthmus, as well as the natural resources of this splendid island, must ever constitute it an object of commanding interest to the political no less than to the trading world. To use the words of the present Governor, Sir Charles Grey, "The fertility of its soil and fitness both for tillage and pasturage; the richness and variety of its vegetable products; the alternations of mountain and valley; the numerous hot springs and medicinal waters; the known existence of various and valuable minerals; the timbers and ornamental woods of its forests; the abundance and variety of fish on its coasts and neighboring reefs, indicate peculiar facilities for the promotion of the future welfare and prosperity of its inhabitants;" and warrant the hope that, low as it has now fallen, it will not be permitted to relapse into utter barbarism.

Its productions are sugar, coffee, cotton, fustic, logwood, mahogany, a great variety of vegetables and fruits, ginger, sarsaparilla, beeswax and honey; also, the pimento spice, of which nature has assigned to it a monopoly. It possesses great facilities for rearing horses, cattle, sheep, pigs, &c., and its copper mines contain rich deposits.

Jamaica, as a naval station, has always held a prominent place, and must become of paramount importance when the traffic between the Atlantic and Pacific is opened up across the Isthmus; and it possesses the advantage of having the elements, at least of British institutions, both civil and religious.

"The difference of temperature arising from the mountain range which runs east and west, dividing all Jamaica into its north and south sides of fertile and sultry low lands, and of intermediate hills of moderate elevation, afford climates of almost every description known in the tropical or in the warmer portions of the temperate zones, any of which may be exchanged for another by a ride of fifteen or twenty miles, so that there is no part of the globe where an African, a colored, a Creole, and a European population have naturally means severally in the enjoyment of an atmosphere adapted to sustain the healthy condition and the energy of each."*

These advantages, commercial and political, connected with this great island, must ere long be turned into account, and the direction of its affairs will certainly pass into the hands of those parties, whatever their color, numbers, or origin may be, who possess the largest share of those great principles of onward progress and indomitable energy which characterize the Western world.

The depressed and critical state in which this island now stands is so universally admitted that it is unnecessary to enter into details, but merely requisite to draw attention to the alarming facts that, with the exports and value of its staple production diminishing, the expenditure of the island, in the face of increased taxation, is annually exceeding the revenue by an average of £45,000; and also to the statement of the present Governor, in his dispatch of 31st December, 1851, wherein he writes—"The finances of the colony have gone, and are still going on from bad to worse."

In consequence the island is in a state of bankruptcy, and as the taxation is falling more heavily on an impoverished community, daily becoming less able to bear such burdens, there is every prospect of government being brought to an immediate stand, from the impossibility of raising the necessary expenditure for the administration of justice, and the civil and religious institutions of government.

---

* Sir Charles Grey's dispatch, dated 26th June, 1853.

It is unnecessary now to enter into the causes which have reduced this once flourishing island to such a position, and which threaten with ruin those great branches of industry in which the laboring population, not less than the proprietors, are so deeply interested, but rather to bring under notice what, consistently with the public feeling in this country, might restore its prosperity, or at least avert further ruin.

The greatest evil against which the planters of Jamaica have to contend is a short supply of labor, which exists throughout the island generally, and has caused an extensive dismantling and abandonment of properties, as shown in tables annexed. This complaint applies as well to the expense of unskilled labor, from the small amount of work done during a day, as to the impossibility of obtaining that work continuously, and at seasons when it is most required. The first and most obvious remedy for this deficiency appears to lie in an increase to the population being obtained by encouraging a good system of immigration from the coast of Africa, China, India, Madeira, the Azores, and Europe itself, by means of loans granted for that purpose by the British government. It is unnecessary to dilate upon the advantages of immigration to any thinly peopled country, further than to point to the United States of America and Australia, and to state, what is more to the purpose, that the improving condition of all classes in British Guiana and Trinidad, as well as the increased production of sugar, is due to the steady immigration which has been going on for some years back.

But while immigration may be looked upon as the speediest remedy for this state of matters, it is not the only source to which attention should be directed. The import duties, as at present levied, have a direct tendency to discourage the laboring population from working in the cane fields, and induce them to prefer cultivating their own grounds, by artificially increasing the value of provisions grown in the colony, and lessening the amount of food which can be purchased by a given wage. The labor at present existing in the island might be made much more available were a change to take place in the mode of raising the revenue, and the heavy duties on the necessaries of life, amounting to upwards of £105,000 sterling, reduced to mere registration rates, to assist in meeting the expense of maintaining the customs; so that all duties tending to divert labor from the cultivation of the staple productions, or, however indirectly, to increase the expense of cultivation, might be reduced to nominal amounts.

There is every reason to believe that great advantage would result to the island generally were a reduction made on the existing tonnage and other dues on vessels, amounting at present to 4s. 7½d. per ton, as a stronger inducement would then be afforded to ships to frequent its ports. Sir Charles Grey says of it, "no British colony, and scarcely any spot on earth, is so well adapted to be made one large free port, from its central position in relation to other countries, and to the paths of commerce—from its whole coast being inhabited and peopled, and from its numerous and admirable harbors, all abundantly supplied with pure water and fresh vegetables."*

The island being practically in a state of insolvency, a complete alteration must be made in its financial position, and the present heavy expenditure reduced, before any lasting benefit can be effected. A portion of the debt of the island bears six per cent. interest; were the mother country to guarantee the existing debt, and what further advance may be required to compensate the individuals holding appointments that may be abolished; the total sum could then be borrowed at the rate of three per cent., and the balance of revenue, in addition to the import and excise duties, might be raised by direct taxation, levied in such a manner as to press in just proportions on every class.

While it is necessary that all possible reductions should take place, there are items in the expenditure of the colony for which ample provision should at all times be made. The degraded position of the lower classes is too well known, and is pointed to by the slaveholders of America as an argument against the success of abolition. There can be little doubt that the want of sufficient arrangements for education, and the indolent habits contracted from the absence of all motives and inducements to work, have tended greatly to retard the improvement of the emancipated peasantry. In any estimate of the expenditure of Jamaica, extensive provision should be made for the establishment of an effective system of education, and a liberal sum devoted to the maintenance of schools throughout the island. It seems perfectly fair, and a measure calculated to promote a feeling of independence among the lower classes, that for parochial and other necessary and useful institutions, such as the public schools, medical dispensaries, &c., which are peculiarly for the benefit of the laboring population, they should be made to contribute some portion of the expense, through the medium of a poll tax, a house tax, or an acreage tax, which should distinguish between cultivated lands, pasture lands, and waste lands.

A revision should also be made of the laws between master and servant, and those against vagrancy and squatting; and a strong police force, part of which might be mounted, should be kept in a state of complete efficiency.

---

* The Assembly of Jamaica have since passed an act to reduce the dues on vessels to 3d. per ton.

No diminution should be made in the number of stipendiary magistrates, whose appointment by the crown ought to render them perfectly independent of undue prejudice in favor of any class of the inhabitants. But due regard must be paid, in the selection, both of them and the local magistrates, to choose men of such intelligence and standing as will insure proper respect, and a firm and equal administration of justice.

This association do not, at present, wish to make any remarks respecting the constitution of Jamaica, as they feel sure that the hostility evinced by the council against those reductions, so absolutely required—the absence of harmony between the three branches of the Legislature, in bringing forward measures calculated to improve the condition of the inhabitants, and to put the finances of the colony on a sound footing, as well as the irregular and irresponsible manner in which money grants are voted, the revenue is collected, and the public accounts are audited, must engage the immediate attention of Her Majesty's government.

In a memorial lately addressed by this Association to the Duke of Newcastle, urging the necessity of a revision of the taxation and diminution of the expenditure of the island, which is maintained on a scale far exceeding its now prostrate condition, they conclude as follows:—"That, as your Grace will shortly have to appoint a successor to Sir Charles Grey, whose term of office is understood to have expired, your memorialists would respectfully press upon your Grace, that in order to carry out such measures, a governor of known financial ability and business habits be appointed, with power to take the initiative therein; and that, in the event of the Council and Assembly delaying to pass such laws as may appear to your Grace to be founded on a sound policy, the governor be empowered by an imperial act to give them effect, and that the constitution of Jamaica be so altered as may best carry out those principles of economy and finance rendered necessary by the relations subsisting between Jamaica and the mother country, in consequence of the policy of unrestricted competition adopted by the latter under the system of free trade."

Signed in name and by appointment of the WEST INDIA ASSOCIATION OF GLASGOW, by

H. E. CRUM, *Chairman.*
C. D. DONALD, *Secretary.*

GLASGOW, 14*th April,* 1853.

ABSTRACT OF LIST OF PROPERTIES ABANDONED IN JAMAICA SINCE 1832, WHEN THE BRITISH EMANCIPATION ACT PASSED.*

SUGAR.

Middlesex.

	No. of Estates.	Extent of Freeholds.	No. Laborers attached in 1832.	Crop, 1832.	
				Hds.	Pens.
St. Catherine	None.	None.	None.	None.	None.
St. Thomas in the Vale	None.	None.	None.	None.	None.
St. Ann	8	10,339	1,280	483	228½
St. Mary	12	13,236	2,223	1,541	624
St. Dorothy	1	1,406	167	128	52
St. John	2	2,960	590	—	—
Vere	2	3,860	168	56	32
Clarendon	17	23,737	2,660	1,378	572
Manchester	None.	None.	None.	None.	None.
Total	42	55,538	7,088	3,586	1,508½

Surrey.

	No. of Estates.	Extent of Freeholds.	No. Laborers attached in 1832.	Hds.	Pens.
Port Royal	1	1,780	225	38	15
St. David's	2	3,662	424	121	26
St. Thomas in East	13	11,682	1,750	859	373
Portland	12	12,170	1,802	455	131¼
St. George	8	7,225	1,174	81	26
Metcalfe	7	6,612	1,331	703	346
St. Andrew	10	9,509	1,579	413	196
Total	53	52,640	8,285	2,670	1,112½

Cornwall.

	No. of Estates.	Extent of Freeholds.	No. Laborers attached in 1832.	Hds.	Pens.
Trelawny	8	6,844	990	520	216
St. James	18	22,244	2,697	893	349
Hanover	11	8,867	1,696	803	405
St. Elizabeth	6	18,010	1,414	631	200
Westmorcland	2	3,889	383	216	88
Total	45	59,854	7,180	3,063	1,258

Summary.

	No. of Estates.	Extent of Freeholds.	No. Laborers attached in 1832.	Hds.	Pens.
Middlesex	42	55,538	7,088	3,586	1,508½
Surrey	53	52,640	8,285	2,760	1,112½
Cornwall	45	59,854	7,180	3,063	1,258
Total	140	168,032	22,553	9,319	3,879

COFFEE.

Middlesex.

	No. of Properties.	Extent of Freeholds.	No. of Laborers attached in 1832.
St. Catherine	14	6,087	668
St. Thomas in the Vale	70	16,781	2,854
St. Ann	12	12,367	950
St. Mary	6	1,613	423

---

* Report from the committee appointed to inquire into the depressed state of agriculture in this island, and the cause of such depression.
HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY, *December* 18, 1837.

COFFEE.—*Middlesex continued.*

	No. of Properties.	Extent of Freeholds.	No. of Laborers attached in 1832.
St. Dorothy	7	2,313	520
St. John	21	10,149	1,465
Vere	None	None	None.
Clarendon	38	18,852	2,924
Manchester	109	61,887	7,324
Total	277	130,054	17,128
Surrey.			
Port Royal	1	174	38
St. David's	4	1,318	313
St. Thomas in the East	9	5,200	630
Portland	2	1,535	174
St. George	13	7,696	780
Metcalfe	21	5,283	1,235
St. Andrew	111	23,981	4,535
Total	161	45,187	7,705
Cornwall.			
Trelawny	None	None	None.
St. James	None	None	None.
Hanover	None	None	None.
St. Elizabeth	14	9,464	1,376
Westmoreland	13	3,695	621
Total	27	18,159	1,997
Summary.			
Middlesex	277	130,054	17,128
Surrey	161	45,187	7,705
Cornwall	27	13,159	1,997
Total	465	188,400	26,830

Sugar estates	140 =	168,032 acres =	22,553 laborers.
Coffee plantations	465	188,400 "	26,830 "
Total	605	356,432 "	49,383 "

A RETURN OF ALL PROPERTIES IN THE ISLAND OF JAMAICA, UPON WHICH CULTIVATION HAS BEEN WHOLLY OR PARTIALLY ABANDONED SINCE THE FIRST DAY OF JANUARY, 1848, AND SHOWING THE NUMBER OF ACRES; THE ASSESSED ANNUAL VALUE ON THE FIRST DAY OF JANUARY, 1848; THE ASSESSED ANNUAL VALUE ON THE TWENTY-EIGHTH OF MARCH, 1852; THE AVERAGE AMOUNT OF TAXES PAID ANNUALLY FOR FOUR YEARS PRIOR TO THE FIRST DAY OF JANUARY, 1848; AND THE AMOUNT OF TAXES ASSESSED FOR 1852.

	SUGAR ESTATES.		COFFEE PROPERTIES.		PENS.	
	Totally Abandoned.	Partially Abandoned.	Totally Abandoned.	Partially Abandoned.	Totally Abandoned.	Partially Abandoned.
St. Catherine	2	—	—	—	3	—
St. John	5	—	1	—	5	—
St. Dorothy	1	2	1	—	1	1
St. Thomas in the Vale	9	4	25	3	—	—

RETURN OF ALL PROPERTIES IN THE ISLAND OF JAMAICA—*Continued.*

	SUGAR ESTATES.		COFFEE PROPERTIES.		PENS.	
	Totally Abandoned.	Partially Abandoned.	Totally Abandoned.	Partially Abandoned.	Totally Abandoned.	Partially Abandoned.
Vere	5	—	—	—	—	—
Clarendon	10	—	1	—	2	—
Manchester	—	—	8	2	—	—
St. Mary	8	7	—	—	—	—
St. Ann	8	1	19	18	2	—
Port Royal	1	—	2	3	—	—
St. David	6	1	10	4	4	—
St. Andrew	4	7	8	6	—	—
St. Thomas in the East	18	9	8	1	—	—
Portland	3	8	—	—	—	—
St. George	2	8	12	10	3	5
Metcalfe	2	2	6	13	—	—
St. Elizabeth	4	1	5	6	10	16
Westmoreland	9	5	—	—	—	—
Hanover	13	5	—	—	—	—
St. James	7	5	—	—	—	—
Trelawny	11	6	—	—	—	—
Total	128	71	96	66	30	22

	Number of Acres.	Assessed Annual Value on the 1st January, 1848.	Assessed Annual Value on the 28th March, 1852.	Average Amount of Taxes paid annually for four years prior to 1st Jan., 1848.	Amount of Taxes Assessed for 1852.
St. Catherine	4,105	£1,257	£592	£209	£98
St. John	17,025	3,179	430	475	132
St. Dorothy	5,578	1,495	807	231	97
St. Thomas in the Vale	26,420	6,175	3,838	1,027	588
Vere	9,273	3,033	1,215	331	202
Clarendon	24,576	3,008	954	575	266
Manchester	6,673	681	206	175	50
St. Mary	17,846	7,529	4,258	1,210	645
St. Ann	29,367	7,654	3,402	771	490
Port Royal	2,956	1,026	658	132	82
St. David	16,006	3,584	2,480	401	412
St. Andrew	15,106	4,806	1,776	938	328
St. Thomas in the East	37,935	9,251	4,198	862	672
Portland	15,225	3,109	2,478	463	335
St. George	37,063	8,572	7,214	1,166	643
Metcalfe	15,248	6,022	2,955	796	363
St. Elizabeth	43,663	4,196	2,775	823	330
Westmoreland	18,510	5,423	2,886	831	277
Hanover	18,149	5,422	3,100	718	358
St. James	11,480	4,611	2,798	711	336
Trelawny	18,984	8,342	4,197	859	571
Total	391,187	98,439	53,221	13,715	7,284

HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY, *Thursday, Jan.* 27, 1853.

Ordered, That the above return be published in the several newspapers of this island for two weeks.

WM. KEMBLE, *Clerk to the Assembly.*

"In 1842 the value of hereditaments, which was estimated at £13,205,686 sterling, was reduced in 1851 to £9,499,799 sterling, and it is believed the return for 1852 will show a falling off of two millions more."—*Mr. Westmoreland's Speech in the House of Assembly, Feb.* 2, 1853.

Art. V.—SEA-COAST CROPS OF THE SOUTH.

IT is good for us to be here—discussing, not "the affairs of the nation," but the elements of a nation's wealth*—the education, the agriculture, the commerce of the planting States. Citizens of the several States meet in this association to compare notes, with the mutual desire to understand the peculiar views of each, to profit by each other's experience, communicating freely their own—to improve the art, and direct attention to the science of agriculture.

It is to be hoped that one (not the least) of the good results of these meetings will be the institution of an Agricultural and Geological Survey, in each State, by the Legislature thereof, or at least the organization of a Board of Agriculture, through the members of which analyses of soils may be procured by farmers, together with the dissemination of all sorts of information relating to soils, manures, implements and culture—varieties of stock and their treatment, the reclaiming of wild lands, and the administration of labor.

To a country populated as is ours, a thorough agricultural survey is replete with use and advantage. It serves to discover the best systems of culture and of management perfected by gifted individuals who may have devoted a life-time to their establishment, to analyze, describe, and communicate them to distant parts of the State, where, possibly, they may be entirely new, and, if applicable, greatly beneficial.

The surveyor makes it his business to ascertain the diseases of plants and animals, and unites with his own the experience and the science of all farmers in discussing the remedies applicable to them.

In this, and in various other ways, the agricultural survey tends to make farmers, in all parts of the State, somewhat acquainted with each other, as well as with their different practices and facilities, their difficulties and remedies.

---

* Read before the Agricultural Association of the Planting States, 1854.

The State of North Carolina has ordered an agricultural survey, and has intrusted its execution to the experienced Dr. Emmons, who was an agent in the elaborate work in the State of New-York. He has already published a small preliminary volume as preface to his valuable labors in our sister State. In connection, also, with the University of North Carolina, at Chapel Hill, a School of Science has been established, with a Professor (C. Phillips) of Civil Engineering, and a Professor (Hedrick) of Agricultural Chemistry, who, besides lecturing on that subject, has made some interesting and valuable analyses of soil.

The Agricultural and Geological Survey of South Carolina is little more than fairly begun. The benefits which have been and will be derived from what has been done, cannot fully be estimated in terms. If they could be calculated and set down, in money, we suppose the result would be a sum sufficient to defray a hundred times over all the expense which has been incurred for it by the State. The bringing to view and marking the local extent of the marl beds on the rivers Pee Dee, Waccamaw, Santee, Cooper, Ashley and Savannah, on Edisto Island, and elsewhere, on the seaboard; the testing of the constituent value of these marls by the long practised formulæ and ample experience of the venerable Ruffin, together with his clear explanation of and rules for the use of them, are a boon to the inhabitants of the respective localities, and to the productive wealth of the State, which no one will pretend to estimate in numbers.*

For the institution of the Board of Agriculture, by which was organized the plan of agricultural surveys in England, the people of that country are indebted to the wisdom and public spirit of Sir John Sinclair, the friend and correspondent of Washington.†

---

* In his Report, (1843, p. 82,) Mr. Ruffin says: "The small use of the plough, (indeed its total disuse in many cases,) and its substitution by the hoe and hand labor, is, to a stranger, the most remarkable and novel feature of the agriculture of the lower districts." This could not have been said of the rice growing region of the lower districts, but of the long-staple cotton region. Even there the entire disuse of the plough is becoming somewhat more rare. Several planters, even on Edisto Island, are using the plough in the culture of cotton as well as corn; and its use is becoming general elsewhere.

† A descendant of Sir John visited the United States in the month of October, in the person of a Reverend Presbyter of the English Church. The Rev. John Sinclair, Archdeacon of Middlesex, who, together with the Right Rev. Bishop Spencer, late of Madras, and other Divines, was deputed by the Venerable Society in England "for the Propagating of Christianity in Foreign Parts," to attend the late triennial meeting of the Board of Missions of the Protestant Episcopal Church in this country. It was gratifying to us to make the acquaintance of this distin-

May not this Association constitute such a Board for the Southern States, for wise and useful ends?

Of all descriptions of men, whose energies are actively employed in the same vocation, planters are the least given to act together in combination. A main reason for this may be found in the fact of their living segregated in the country, although sociably inclined, associating kindly, and proverbially hospitable.

Each, independent of all persons save the indwellers and laborers of the plantation, practising there his own peculiar system, is separated from his surrounding neighbors by the recognized boundary of his broad acres. Deluded thus into a dangerous self-dependence, habitually secluded from the active bustle of life, and the frequent haunts of men, the worthy planter too often fails of exercising his share of that influence which helps to form public opinion. Not so the gifted citizen who mingles daily with the animated masses congregated in cities, or associates constantly with men engaged alike with him, in commerce, manufactures, trades or professional pursuits. If combining seldom, however, and only under the pressure of high excitement, or of threatened danger to a common interest—and if less commonly exercising individual influence—it is consoling to reflect that, whenever it may be called into active exercise, the influence of the educated planter is a sound and wholesome one.

Generally, he is conservative. Bred in the country amid the exuberance of nature, in her just proportions and distribution, his mind is accustomed to her gradual processes, the regular succession of the seasons, and the annual recurrence of the routine of labor allotted by the Creator. His gifts acquire strength, character, and virtue. They may never be developed beyond his rustic sphere—never until fair occasion offer. But, when so called forth, they will be exercised for the most part conservatively, and on the side of truth. In the creation around him, even of inanimate nature,

"He finds tongues in trees, books in running brooks,
Sermons in stones, and good in everything."

CROPS OF THE SEA-COAST.

We have been invited to address you on "the Culture of the Sea-Coast Crops." A subject fruitful in itself, abounding in details, and sufficiently interesting to those of us whose business it is to cultivate the great staples. The information which we have

---

guished divine, this modest, estimable gentleman. And it will be gratifying to our countrymen to know that he bore away to his native island impressions of American character and sentiment, most pleasing and grateful to him, alike honorable and grateful to us.

been able to collect, as to one staple, together with all that we may have acquired in the culture of the other, is entirely at the service of the Association. But all the detail cannot be given here.

Both cotton and rice were at first grown by few persons. As they profited largely by the peculiar culture, they expended in hospitalities the revenues which accrued. Early in the present century a single estate in Georgia is said to have yielded a crop (600 bags) of Sea Island cotton, worth $100,000 and upwards. Rice has been known to command a ready market at thirty shillings per cwt. The planter, in those distant days, who made good crops, doubled his capital in a few years. The statement comes from the planter himself, that in one of those years the proceeds of the labor of each worker, on one of his plantations,* enabled him to add another laborer to his estate. During the war of 1812, a good deal of salt was made on the seaboard. It commanded, a year or two after the war, $6 a bushel!

These monopolies have no more any existence. They are now matters of history merely. In republican compensation, the same causes which have reduced the profits of the few, have tended to equalize with them the incomes of the many.

Of salt, an article of necessary consumption, which had been manufactured on our coast more than a hundred years, there are now none so poor to "boil a kettle."

Of cotton, the culture, far from being confined to Georgia, has been extended over the fertile region embracing, with the exception of Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky and Missouri, the Southern and South-Western States. And in the production of rice both the Carolinas, Georgia and Louisiana, are engaged. It is grown for domestic consumption in Mississippi, Florida, and Texas, and nearly every where else where may be found a settlement of negroes who once lived in the rice region of country.

The sawing of lumber, farming and distilling turpentine, are now the most profitable kinds of business near the seaboard and out of the city.

They are not considered favorable to the steady habits of the negro; but they yield very tempting incomes, varying from three to six hundred dollars to the hand.

Over the bar of Georgetown alone, a single port in South Carolina, the lumber and naval stores which passed out during the last fiscal year, it is computed, exceed half a million of dollars in value. The quantity exported is steadily increasing.

---

* Waterford, a small plantation lying in the best pitch of tide on Waccamaw. It belonged at that time to the late Benjamin Allston.

COTTON.

The crop most largely exported from the United States is cotton. It pays for two-thirds nearly of the imports—the basis of federal revenue.

This important staple, the peace-maker between Europe and America, is the chief product of the industry of the States furnishing the constituency of this Association.

Cotton,[*] long known to the world, has been grown and worn in the East for centuries. The application of machinery to its manufacture imparted a decided impulse to the culture of the raw material. But it remained for the invention of Whitney's[†] saw-gin to remove the chief difficulty in the way of its production in America,—a production now limited only by the wants of mankind.

Amazing as has been the progress of the growth of cotton in America, the population almost, and the commercial prosperity of the United States, have kept pace with it.

We will not more than allude to the exports of the year 1791, in comparison with those of 1851, sixty years after. (In money value they are as $52,000 to $112,315,317 !) Nor will we offer the reflections suggested by such a comparison. Some other mind will do this service more appropriately and ably. They are replete with instruction as well as interest.[‡] For the benefit of States, as well as individuals, we are warned that, "To whom much is given, of him shall much also be required."

The variety which is cultivated on the sea-coast was introduced into Georgia first. Removed from the influence of a salt atmosphere, it degenerates, and the staple becomes inferior. The region in which it is produced extends from the River Santee, in South Carolina, including the parish of St. John's, Berkley, to the everglades of Florida, embracing a belt of land some twenty to thirty miles wide, measuring from the Atlantic.

---

[*] Mr. William M. Lawton, of Charleston, has in his possession a sample of cotton (produce of a single pod) which was plucked from the tree in its wild state, growing in the Island of Cuba. The tree is said to bear about three years; the staple, of course, is inferior.

[†] Whitney's invention was patented in 1793. There is now on exhibition at the World's Fair in New-York a model of the original saw-gin, class 5 and 6, No. 166. The model is owned and exhibited by his son, Eli Whitney, of New-Haven, Connecticut, where the remains of the ingenious inventor lie buried. He died January 8th, 1825.

[‡] The comparative distribution of the general crops of cotton, for ten years past, must not pass unnoticed. It appears (*N. Y. Journal of Commerce*) that from the years 1843–4 to 1852–3, while the cotton crop has increased from 2,124,895 bales to 3,354,058 bales, the consumption of Great Britain has diminished in the ratio of 56.50 to 51.78; that of France as 13.30 to 12.72; that of the North of Europe has increased in the ratio as 3.25 to 5.19; that of other foreign ports as 3.54 to 5.77; and that of the United States as 16.32 to 20.59 per centum.

The crop of 1852 may be set down at 34,000 bags:—

The receipts in Charleston were	19,843 bags.
" in Savannah*	12,971 "
Besides several hundred bags, say (which were sent directly from Florida to New-York and New-Orleans)	1,186 "
	34,000 bags.

Out of which quantity it is estimated that 4,000 to 5,000 bags were furnished by the State of Florida.

Judging from the quantity of land recently cleared in Florida, and the comparative success which has hitherto repaid the en-

---

* The following letter was received after the foregoing statement was made up

St. Catherine's Island, *January* 21*st*, 1854.

Dear Sir:—To ascertain with accuracy the amount of Sea-Island cotton produced in Georgia, the production of each county should be known; and to acquire this information, reference should be made to intelligent individuals residing in each one, in the absence of statistics; but as this course has not been adopted, I necessarily had recourse to the factor of the planters of said counties. This estimate may be somewhat vague, but I would decide that it approaches as near accuracy as the date which has been assumed will admit of. It is computed that 11,300 bales of Sea-Island cotton are produced in this State, weighing not less than 400 weight. I have assumed the maximum 6,000 laborers—1,000 white laborers, and 5,000 negroes.

We will estimate the land cultivated by the former at $400,000, and that cultivated by slaves at $1,500,000; the whites producing 3,000 bales to the slaves 8,300 bales.

To form an accurate estimate of the value of the slave capital employed, we must embrace the old [negroes] and children, and double the number, say 10,000 slaves, whose marketable value is $4,000,000 For the past five years cotton has averaged 20c. per lb.

Value of land cultivated by slaves	$1,500,000
Value of slaves employed in its cultivation	4,000,000
	$5,500,000
8,300 bales of cotton produced by slaves at 20 cts. per lb.	$664,000
Expenses (this estimate may fall below the cost)	100,000
	$564,000

Adding to this estimate the yield exceeds 10 per cent.

It is not supposed that there is any deterioration of the capital employed, for every judicious planter improves his lands by a judicious system; keeps his buildings in good condition, and he realizes a *numerical* increase of his slaves of from four to eight per cent. from births. The increase of our negroes must be ascribed to their improved condition in all respects. They are better fed, their buildings are more comfortable, and they enjoy the benefits of the improved system of husbandry, which, whilst it lightens the physical labor, it enables the planter to apply them profitably to the improvement of his lands, by a judicious system of manuring, which is infinitely cheaper and more substantial than any extraneous manures which come from abroad. The use of these implements (my remarks are exclusively applied to Sea-Island cotton plantations) places it in the power of the planter to keep employed a part of his force the whole year, except when he is harvesting his crop, in collecting the material, and making manure. He possesses advantages which no other agriculturist enjoys, and if he does not avail himself of them, the fault rests with him, and I am inclined to believe that from this neglect he does terprising cultivators of long staple cotton in that State,* it is estimated that the crop of Florida, if not the present year, will very soon equal that of Georgia in quantity.

SEA ISLAND COTTON.

In treating this subject, without presuming to enter on the field which has been so thoroughly traversed and completely occupied by the distinguished President of the State Agricultural Society, we will only venture to add such gleanings as we have been so fortunate to make in Georgia and elsewhere, together with some few results which have been obtained in Carolina since the writing of that elaborate and able essay to which we beg leave to refer.†

The soil best adapted to the production of fine cotton is a light yellow, sandy soil. It bears well the admixture of salt and marsh mud, with the compost applied to it, and yields, if fairly dealt by, a fine, long, and even staple.‡

The better practice is, to prepare the land by listing in the remaining growth as soon as the last year's crop has been picked—even before the cotton has been cleaned for market. The alleys are then broken up with the plough. In the spring, the earth, well manured, is drawn up with the hoe, making a bed upon the autumn listing, and the seed is sown in dibbles, a

injustice to his negroes. If his crops are made in abundance, he has it in his power to expend a little more money for their comfort, and certainly for his benefit.

I cannot but regret that circumstances beyond my control have prevented my answering your letter before.

I am, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

***

ROBERT W. ALLSTON, *Georgetown, South Carolina.*

---

* The planters in Florida have fresh lands not yet infested with bugs and insects. They use the plough extensively, and find it no damage to the plant. They have the salt air breathing its peculiar influence from the West, on a part of the Peninsula, as well as from the East. They have, too, domesticated among them McCarthy's gin.

They must succeed with this cotton, it would seem, unless they yield to the influence of the climate ultimately, and let the cotton tree grow for their crop.

The people of Florida, as well as of Southern Georgia, should forthwith begin to plant the olive. Plantations of the olive tree will interfere very little with the general crop until they yield largely of fruit. They will succeed in Florida when the cotton lands shall be worn out.

† Memoir on Sea-Island cotton by the Hon. Whitmarsh B. Seabrook, President of the State Agricultural Society, and recently Governor of South Carolina.

We take leave here to acknowledge the favors which we have received, in the way of information, freely and kindly given, both as to cotton and rice, from Dr. Scriven, Messrs. Waldburg and Habersham, of Georgia; from Messrs. William Seabrook, William M. Lawton, and John F. Blacklock, of South Carolina.

‡ The usual compost is prepared in summer by mixing with farmyard, cowpen, and stable litter, salt marsh, marsh mud, and even salt. It is applied to the land in winter at the rate of forty, fifty, and seventy cart loads.

Mr. Townsend, of Edisto, does not depend on the "cart loads," but covers his land well with the manure.

peck to the acre or more, according with the strength of the soil, &c.* After the seeds germinate, the alleys are again broken up with the plough, and soon the process of thinning begins. With the three first hoeings, the plants are gradually thinned out to the stand of a single stalk, eighteen, twenty, or twenty-four inches or more from its neighbor. The ground must be kept clean throughout. The quantity or rate of planting, when the hoe is altogether used, does not exceed three acres to the hand; and the task is one-fourth of an acre (105 × 105 feet.†) If the plough and scraper be used together with the hoe, much more may be accomplished; the hoe drawing up to the plants the earth loosened by the plough, the task may be three-fourths of an acre. Where the plough is used freely, seven acres to the hand may be tended, as in Florida, and perhaps on Santee. But, on this scale, the manuring must be neglected, or only partially done. In Georgia, our informant,‡ who uses the plough and scraper, plants five acres to the hand, in order to keep his land in good heart by manuring. For the same reason, a very successful planter on Edisto§ tends but five acres to the hand. He uses the plough freely, manures well, and makes a good interest.

The effects of the autumnal gales, so unavoidable, are sometimes disastrous to the ungathered and ripening crop.

Among the diseases to which long cotton is subject, blight, rust, and "blue,"‖ may arise from some defect in the soil, which, doubtless, may be removed, or partially remedied by proper dressing at the proper season, together with thorough draining —for caterpillar and the bug there is no certain remedy but propitious seasons—unless, indeed, it be found in a judicious rotation of crops, and naked fallows, the ground being well broke up and exposed to winter frost. When about to be attacked, however, defend your plants by all the means within your reach. Destroy the enemy in embryo, as the energetic planter, last alluded to, has shown can be done.

Preparation for Market.—It requires from fifty to sixty days to prepare a bale of fine cotton for market.

---

* In order to insure the production of fine cotton, the seed must be carefully selected, and well attended to. Owens', Selection has, at present, a high reputation. Mr. Geo. C. Owens has given name to the seed, as Mr. Kinsey Burden did to his in 1826–30.

† Among cotton planters on the seaboard, the acre is laid off square, two hundred and ten feet, (210 × 210,) being made up of four squares of 105 × 105 feet = 44,100 square feet.

‡ Mr. Waldburg.

§ Mr. Townsend.

‖ Dr. Bachman suggests that these diseases may be due to some minute insects. The suggestion is worthy the attention of microscopists.

If they will be attentive to the instructions of this distinguished naturalist, cotton planters cannot fail to derive from his scientific investigations and practical suggestions hints which may lead them to discover the causes, and likewise the remedies, of many diseases to which the plant is now a prey too often.

1st. The seed-cotton must be sorted for the gin, *i. e.*, the dead leaves, and everything extraneous is picked out; say sixty pounds to the hand.

2d. It is then passed through the roller gin, which relieves it of the seed. The common foot-gin or treadle, propelling two rollers, is the machine commonly used for separating the fibre from the seed, cleaning on an average twenty-five pounds a day. The McCarthy, or Florida gin, with one roller, is now attracting much attention; and the planters are putting them up as fast as they can procure them. A gin, costing one hundred dollars, propelled by a good horse or mule, or still better by steam, will clean from 150 lbs. to 200 lbs. a day.*

---

* Mr. McCarthy, of Florida, took out a patent in 1840, for a gin having one roller, say four inches in diameter, and three feet in length, dressed with leather arranged spirally around it. This roller revolves over and in loose contact with a plate of sheet iron. The cotton is received and drawn in between the two, and the seed is separated by means of a thin steel bar placed horizontally, and operating vertically in front of the roller, and with great rapidity. By the use of this machine, not only is the saving of labor considerable—a one horse power machine will gin as much cotton with one hand to feed it, and may be an inefficient hand otherwise, as five old gins with each a hand—but the seed is found to be less crushed than it was by the old-fashioned roller-gin, requiring, of course, less moting manipulation.

Strange to say, an invention of so much value to our planters on the coast has remained almost unknown in Carolina until a year ago, and unused by steam until the present year. To Mr. Wm. M. Lawton, to whose kindness we are indebted for this description, is the credit due for bringing it to light in this State; and Mr. Wm. Seabrook, we believe, was the first planter who ventured to use it in the preparation of his crop, a sample of which, in all its silky fineness, he has sent to the Industrial Exhibition at New-York. This gentleman, not content with the determination of his own sound judgment, supported by that of his immediate friends, as to the effect of this new mechanism upon the staple of fine cotton, has, yielding to the promptings of his enlarged views and thorough practice, invited thereon the verdict of the consumer of the raw material. He has caused a bale of his last crop to be prepared by this machine, and one of the same fine cotton to be prepared after the old method, and to be shipped on his own account to the habitual spinner in Manchester, for the express purpose of testing by his practised judgment the relative value of the staple prepared in the new and old way. This test, as far as it has gone, has resulted unfavorably to the new gin. The spinners think that cotton prepared by it has rather a greater tendency to "nep," and they suggest a caution against using it for cleaning the finest cottons.

We find the following letter in the *Savannah Republican*, which we copy for the information of those engaged in the cultivation of Sea-Island cotton :—

LIVERPOOL, *August* 18, 1853.

GENTLEMEN :—Since my arrival in Great Britain, I have had much intercourse with the spinners of fine yarns in Lancashire and Scotland, and it will interest you to know that they are generally impressed in favor of the Sea-Island cotton they have been receiving from Savannah. The Florida cottons they particularly refer to as possessing every essential qualification, except cleanliness; this deficiency, I was apprised on all sides, would weigh gravely against the appreciation of Florida descriptions in the future crop. And the reasons adduced were so forcible, that I am quite sure I shall do service to every intelligent planter by giving them publicity.

In the first place, they say that the per centage of loss by crushed seeds and stained and dead cotton, at present prices, is a prominent obstacle to the use of carelessly prepared lots; but a still more serious impediment is found in the fact that in the present nice position of the labor question, the operatives, who are now

3d. The cotton is "moted" as it comes from the gin, namely: all particles of broken seed, and every speck which may have escaped detection in the "sorting," are carefully removed. Thirty pounds to the hand are mooted after the foot-gin, sixty pounds after the use of McCarthy's patent, or in such proportion.

4th. It is then packed by hand in the old-fashioned round bales, containing each 320 lbs. to 400 lbs., of clean merchantable cotton.

The finest cotton is exceedingly delicate in vegetation, and requires careful handling throughout. It can only be produced, therefore, in small quantities; and then, unless everything be propitious, it does not pay too well. The cost of producing a bag of ordinary Sea Island cotton is about $75,* that of the finest twice as much.

Prices.—In 1851, in Charleston market, fine cottons were sold at 60 cents per lb.—a single bag commanded 70 cents.

In 1852, fine cottons sold at 80 cents per lb., only a bale or two brought more, (85 cents.)

Ordinary Sea Island cottons commanded in Charleston,

In March, 1851, 30 cents per lb.
" 1852, 30 cents per lb.
" 1853, 43 and 45 cents per lb.

The planters are few who make the finest cottons, some eight or ten, perhaps, in Carolina, planting a small portion of their lands in the choicest seed, which has to be selected with great care from year to year.

all paid by what is called piece work, are independent enough to decline working upon illy prepared cotton, out of which they cannot get as large a weight of fine yarn per day as they can out of clean sorts. This is the secret of the present absence of demand for the lower descriptions of Sea-Islands, and it is not difficult to predict that a wider difference in price will exist in the Savannah and Charleston markets next season between dirty and clean cotton than has before been known.

Complaints have not been wanting against not a few of the Liberty and Bryan County crops, which are represented as harsh and dry in staple. Manure and change of seed are the obvious remedies for this defect. On the other hand, some of the crops raised but a mile or two from the end of your plank road, where care has been had, have been pronounced equal to some of the favorite island brands.

I may add, that of all the preparations of cotton sent forward from Savannah, the open fleecy sorts from the McCarthy gin have given most satisfaction, promising always that the cotton is clean. Some of the lots I have seen here, prepared in this way, had minute particles of shell and leaf so incorporated in the cotton that its usefulness was considered greatly impaired.

A small portion of one of the finest island crops in South Carolina, comprising two or three bags, put through the McCarthy gin, was recently sent to the mill of one of the largest spinning concerns in Manchester, and there placed in comparison with the remainder of the crop ginned in the old way, and the report given me by the manager was, "the open cotton is exactly in the condition we require to bring it to for our work."

I am, gentlemen, faithfully yours, Z.

---

* This has reference to cottons produced by the hoe culture, without the plough.

These cottons are taken by England and France, chiefly through the ports of Liverpool and Havre. England receiving the larger proportion, re-exports a part of her supply to the Continent, (Switzerland and elsewhere,) where it is manufactured into exquisite laces and muslins. A few hundred bags of Sea Island cotton are manufactured in the United States, chiefly in making spool cotton. A pound of Sea Island cotton may be spun so fine as to produce a thread of incredible length. Yet Professor Mitchel, of the Cincinnati Observatory, stated that no thread, of any kind, which he could procure, was equal in fineness, lightness, and elasticity to that of the spider's web.

The cottons that will command from 45 to 68 cents per lb., made with the proper use of the plough, and cleaned by the improved machinery, yield a very handsome interest upon the capital invested, say not less than from ten to twelve per cent. Fourteen per cent. was realized last year by more than one planter.

PROVISION CROP.

Of all the various callings to which men in the low country resort for a livelihood, all, except the transient turpentine farmer,* raise a provision crop of corn, peas, and potatoes. Even the timber-getter, whose lumbering, gigantic wheels require a goodly number of stout oxen for the heavy draught, while these are recruiting on the summer pastures of his native pine-barren, will put his horse to the plough and work out provision for the ensuing winter.

The hunter, too, who ranges now for game farther and wider than erst he did, over natural meadows,† upon which his stock of cattle luxuriate in summer, and through thick-wooded swamps, where they seek shelter and forage during the hard weather of our brief winters. The hunter and his sons employ a part of several days in the week, during the proper season, in weeding the potato patch, and tending the corn and planting the slips and the peas, whilst the industrious wife, and thrifty, home-bred daughter, ply the spinning-wheel and hand-loom, to work up their own garden crop of cotton with the coarse fleece of their native flock into comfortable jeans and flannels for the household.

---

* The man who hires laborers annually for the purpose, the railroad contractor also, who hires male laborers only, for his work. Neither employment exercises wholesome influence on the habits of the negro.

† Large tracts of prairie called Savannas, which in May, June, and July abound with the finest grass pasture, and at times are richly varied with beautiful flowers.

CORN—(*Zea Mais*)—*Maize.**

The land for corn is seldom disturbed until near the time for planting, though it will not be doubted that the farmer would find profit in breaking up his land during the frosts of winter. It is laid off with the plough in drills, usually five feet apart, and the deeper the better. These drills, or furrows, are filled with the litter from the stables and the farm pen, and whatever else of vegetable matter may be at command, (the rice planter uses rice-straw for this purpose.) They are then listed in or covered up with either the hoe or the plough—sometimes with both.

The corn, which is planted towards the last of March, is dropped (3 or 4 grains in one spot, to be thinned out, after healthy and vigorous vegetation, to one plant) in dibbles made upon the ridges thrown up as above, 3 or 4 feet apart, depending upon the producing power of the land.† Some farmers sow corn as close as 2½ feet, and even 2 feet. This, however, requires very strong land, enriched by manure. In general, it is not wise to plant thick; the field in full growth may be more promising and pleasing to the eye, and may produce more fodder, but less sound, heavy grain.

For the most part, this crop receives three ploughings and one hoeing, if the hoe can be spared. When in its tender state, it is thinned out to one stalk. In the month of June it is thoroughly cleansed and laid by with the hoe, when peas are sown in dibbles upon the ridges, midway between the corn plants. This is done at such precise time as to allow the peas to vegetate and appear just before the corn tassels. When the grain is sufficiently filled and hard, the blades of the plant are stripped and cured for forage. The fodder makes excellent food for horses, but the work of stripping is one among the least inviting and healthful to the laborers. Soon the dying stalks, no longer obstructing the rays of the sun from the lowly legume, are covered by the running pea-vines, which when in blossom, and when with full pods pendant from every stalk, present the field in an aspect rich and abundant in promise.

When gathered, corn should be put up with the inner shuck on, in a house well ventilated, as open to the air as is consistent with the protection from damp.

On good farms the production of this grain is at the rate of 20 to 35 bushels per acre. A leading Waccamaw planter has repeatedly averaged, on thirty acres, fifty bushels per acre and more.

---

* See Report "On the Culture of Indian Corn," made to the Winyah and All-Saints' Agricultural Society, 20th April, 1848, by the Hon. J. R. Poinsett, for a full account.

† It is becoming a common practice to roll the seed corn in a solution of coal tar, before planting it, in order to protect it from birds, &c.

Any soft corn planted near the sea-coast tends gradually to become flinty.

Higher latitudes, and especially Western lands, are better adapted to the production of corn, yielding less wood, and more grain.

In the State of Indiana, for example, a crop has been obtained, much larger than ours, with a single ploughing. A stand once secured, the weeds are suffered to grow up in common with the plant. Both mature in nature's good time, when as much corn is gathered as may be needed for the granary,—the remainder is fed off to stock on the field where it has been grown.

OF POTATOES,* (*Convolvulus.*)

The land is prepared in like manner as for corn. On rice plantations, instead of straw the "tailings" are used for potatoes, viz.: the finer particles of the straw produced by threshing out the grain, and separated by the process of winnowing or fanning the grain clean, to be pounded. As on well-managed farms these two crops are produced from the same ground, alternately—or in the order of rotation with cotton—the land is laid off the same distance for both, whether it be 5 or 4½ feet, so that the beds, or ridges, may be reversed every year. This preparation with rice planters is made by listing in the tailings in the month of February. The land lies thus until a convenient time for planting, somewhere about the last of March, when the earth on both sides is drawn up on the listing, so as to make as large beds as the ground will readily admit of. On the top of these beds, trenched for the purpose, the seed potato is dropped 6 or 8 inches apart, either whole or cut into two parts, as the quality of seed will allow, or require. The trench is then covered with earth, and the seed left to vegetate. As soon as the sprout appears above ground, the work of cultivation begins, and it must be constantly and diligently followed up, or else disappointment will ensue as to the result.

The fine grass which makes its appearance with the potato must never be suffered to take deep root, but must at once be shaved off with the hoe—and picked out by hand, so as to be entirely destroyed. As fast as any more grass or weeds make show, they must in like manner be removed, while young, and growing only on the surface. If either be suffered to take root, loose, and rich as is the earth of the beds, their roots soon penetrate deep, and spread, when they can no longer be removed without disturbing the incipient growth of the young tuber, if indeed it be not pulled up altogether in extracting the weed. After hoeing, a good rain is the signal for breaking up the earth between the beds, and drawing it up with the hoe to the top of the beds, carefully around the plants. Upon this the vines shoot forth, and very soon cover the beds, shading the ground effectually, and thus preventing a new crop of grass.

---

* For the elaborate and able Report by Dr. J. R. Sparkman, "On the Culture and Preservation of the Sweet Potato," see the Proceedings of the Winyah and All-Saints' Agricultural Society, 18th April, 1850.

This is the "root" crop. It is dug from September to November inclusive, and yields from 150 to 250, and even 300 bushels per acre.* The more productive crop, ordinarily, is that from the vine, or slip.

Thus the land intended for slip potatoes is generally sown down with oats,† as a winter crop. These are harvested in June, by which time potatoes, if planted in rich ground, and kept clean, will have shot out vines, long and abundant enough to cut for planting slips. The oat stubble is listed in four and a half feet apart, (in order to alternate with corn next year.) Upon this listing, the ploughs throw four furrows, then the hoes come with the first rain, and make up a good bed, flattening it on top. Along the top of these beds are carefully laid together three or four, or more, succulent vines, which are covered at the distance of sixteen or eighteen inches, with a good hoeful of earth, leaving interval enough open for the leaves of the vine to breathe. Keep these clear of grass, and well earthed up, if washed by heavy rains, and the new vines will soon cover the face of the earth. If the soil be rich, and the planting be

---

* A Proximate Analysis of the Sweet Potato made by Emmons, and given in the Report of the Agricultural Survey of the State of New-York, is attached, in order that it may be compared with that of Prof. Sheppard, reported in the Proceedings of the State Agricultural Society of South Carolina, and in order also to invite the attention of farmers to the other Analyses furnished by both these valuable works.

PROXIMATE ANALYSIS OF THE SWEET POTATO.

Starch	19.955
Sugar, and extractive matter mostly sugar	5.80
Dextrine	0.750
Fibre after boiling in a weak solution of caustic potash	1.850
Matter dissolved out of fibre by a weak solution of caustic potash	2.100
Albumen	5.900
Casein	1.050
A body that resembles	0.225
Water	69.515

† After the middle of January, oats may be sown (1 bushel per acre) in a light furrow, made by the plough; the sower following the plough with seed, and the earth from the next furrow covering the grain.

made in June, 300, 400, or even 500 bushels of potatoes per acre, may be produced for winter use, depending upon the nature of the season, and the lateness of frost. The lightest frost will affect the vines, and effectually check the further growth of the tuber. The manifest effect of frost upon the vines is the signal for gathering the crop. The alleys between the beds are filled with straw from the threshing-yard. On the first fair weather the potatoes are dug, and the straw covered up by the digging, soon decomposing, manures the land for the next succeeding crop of corn. The potatoes, after remaining in large heaps on the field, protected by a covering of straw and earth, until the whole be dug, are housed* for winter use; the smaller roots being selected for seed, and carefully housed to themselves. The hogs are now turned in, to feed upon the unearthed roots, and those which have been unavoidably covered over in the digging, with earth and straw together. Before another season for planting arrives, the hogs, besides furnishing the usual supply of pork and bacon, will have given the field, by rooting after potatoes, which their keen sense of smell traces out, the best kind of (not deep) subsoiling.

A good rotation course is, after the crop described above, to take two crops of corn, then graze, then a crop of root potatoes, then oats, and slips as just described, and so on.

The late lamented Ward, who confessedly stood foremost among planters, was in the habit of dividing his upland into two portions; planting them every year alternately, in corn and peas—oats and potatoes. His crop of corn seldom measured less than fifty bushels to the acre—his slip potatoes yielded six and seven hundred bushels, and sometimes more, to the acre.

ALLUVIAL LANDS.

Of the large quantity of land uncultivated in the Carolinas, in Georgia and Florida, a good portion of the alluvial swamp is destined to be reclaimed and converted to the farmer's use.

None of the swamps on the great rivers in those States are under profitable cultivation, which only can be permanent, except those which, having been reclaimed, are protected by dams (*levées*) from the destructive influx of heavy freshets to which those rivers are annually subject. Leaving out of view, for the present, the tide-swamp, the cotton plantation nearest the sea-coast which has been dammed on the Pee Dee, is Mr. Gibson's, near Marr's Bluff, where the Manchester Railway is to cross. That on the Santee belongs to Mr. Mazyck Porcher, and lies near, a little below, the Santee Canal.

---

* The house is built of good plank, with walls four feet high, covered with a tight shingle or thatched roof, on a dry, well-drained spot,—from 40 to 100 feet long, and from 15 to 20 feet wide, with ventilators, allowing the escape of the hot moist air, and gases from within, but not admitting the ingress of cold, frosty air from without.

Doubtless there are many points upon those rivers and others as susceptible of like improvement, which would repay the labor, if the right plan of constructing levées be pursued. Col. John N. Williams' dams on the Pee Dee have withstood many floods, including those of the last two years.

There are many inland swamps, bordering on the tide-water country, from the Neuse to St. Mary's — (perhaps farther) sources of short streams, capable of being drained, and ultimately tilled; which contain not only thousands of acres of land suitable for corn, small grain and meadow grasses, but also an abundance of excellent timber,—some white oak, as well as cypress and ash. Among these, we may mention the immense tracts bordering on the Lake Waccamaw, the beautiful reservoir into which are emptied the floods of the adjacent low lands, to be discharged gradually into the bold river of the same name. This lake, in North Carolina, some five miles long, by about three miles wide, is surrounded by dense forests of swamp abounding in timber, which all will be brought into market, or domestic use, whenever the lands shall be drained for cultivation. The white marshes, too, through which meanders a small stream tributary to the Waccamaw, although they could afford no timber, could be reclaimed, and would seem to offer to the enterprising planter the temptation of a boundless field.

Let us revert to the time, not more than a century distant, when indigo was grown in Carolina for exportation.

The now fruitful rice-fields of Santee, and Pee Dee, and Waccamaw, which bear in grain such teeming tribute to productive wealth, and which, in extent of cultivated level, stretched out, in the direction of the ebbing current, beyond the visible horizon, were then but dense, and dank, interminable swamps, the home of the owl and the alligator. Tide swamps they were, the soil of which, though very rich, was useless to the residents and settlers of that day.

If some active proprietor, desirous of converting it to his profit, was hardy enough to plant in corn an occasional knoll, more elevated than the rest, the loss of corn and pumpkins, two years out of three, deterred his neighbors generally from following his example. In periodical addition to the alluvial loam, the shaded surface was enriched by the ultimate decomposition of the annual fall of leaves from the deciduous forest, extending miles across, from river-bank to river-bank. These leaves were often covered up entirely by the deposits of freshets, freighted as they were with the disintegration of rocks above, and the debris of marl-beds below the falls.

The spring-tides also of the summer solstice seldom failed to bring their contributions of silt from the muddy bays and creeks of salt water. Lifted by angry waves and held suspended, this silt was borne along with the current of brackish water, sometimes far inland.

When these two causes operated in conjunction—namely, when a heavy freshet from the high-lands was met by muddy gale-tides, welling up from the salt estuary below, the deposit precipitated was much deeper at the meeting of the waters.*

The extensive forest once sustained by this alluvial formation has disappeared as far up, almost, as tide-water flowed then. Thousands of acres of this same swamp on each river may now be traversed, and not a stump be seen above ground. The swamp has been reclaimed. The tide is shut out; subjected to regulation, and rendered tributary to the enlightened designs of the rice-planter.

The numerous islands of which this region is composed are all inclosed (leaving an outside margin twenty to thirty feet wide) by dams high enough and strong to resist the highest spring-tides. The entire area is divided into "squares" or fields, containing twelve to twenty acres each, by a series of check-banks, made up by excavating all around the field, at a distance of eighteen feet from the centre of the line on which the bank is to be located, a ditch some six to eight feet wide by five feet deep.

The fields are further prepared for cultivation by excavating from ditch to ditch in one direction, a number of smaller ditches called "quarter drains," fifteen to eighteen inches wide, and three feet deep, located parallel to each other, at the distance of seventy-five, or fifty, or thirty-seven and a half feet apart, as may be required by the nature of the land, and the pitch of tide in which it is found. Across the frontier bank, and in a line with one of the main ditches, a deep cut is made, in which is placed and covered up a (wooden culvert twenty feet long, and open, four feet by two) "trunk," furnished at both ends with a sluice-gate, for either admitting the tide over the field, or withdrawing it, as may be desired.

Thus has the tide-swamp been subdued, and converted into flourishing fields, inviting diligent husbandry. The owl has fled to some far off wilderness, and the alligator hides his diminished size at the first sound of human approach.

Sailing up one of those fruitful rivers, the traveller may now behold many miles of serpentine embankment, (continuous save where a water thoroughfare occurs,) inclosing thousands of acres, checked into fields, which bear, in waving luxuriance, crops of this translucent grain.*

---

* See Report to Committee of Patents on Rice, 1852, p. 88, for a notice of the deposit on Santee (over 2 inches) in 1845.

OF RICE—(*Oryza Sativa.*)†

Rice, for which we are indebted to the Island of Madagascar, was introduced into Carolina and America at once, towards the close of the seventeenth century. A few grains were sown in the garden of Landgrave Smith, the site of which is now entirely covered by houses and modern improvements, in the city of Charleston. Those few grains produced many ears, which being disseminated for seed, succeeded in adaptation to the cli-

---

* Rough rice, as it comes from the field is translucent in a degree sufficient for an experienced eye, when holding a head or sheaf of rice up towards the sun, to detect the red rice, which is opaque.

† The following communication to the *Daily Mercury*, of 17th of January, 1849, from the pen of that eminent naturalist, the Rev. Dr. Bachman, furnishes a reliable account of the wild rice of the lakes :—

MINNESOTA RICE.

Mr. Editor :—Several articles under the above head have, within the last few weeks, been going the rounds of the various newspapers in the United States, and I perceive one of a similar character in the *Mercury* of yesterday morning, extracted from the *Journal and Messenger*.

From the accounts published by Professor Randall, of Cincinnati, it would appear that this is "a new discovery of a new cereal grain in the Territory of Minnesota;" that "it is infinitely superior in taste, and far more nutritious than the rice of the United States; grows abundantly as an indigenous production, and can be cultivated to almost any extent in the rivers and lakes that abound in that territory." Your western brother, the editor of the *Journal and Messenger*, ventures the opinion, that "the Minnesota rice will, in time, be found to be of infinitely greater value than the far-famed gold mines of California." The latter prediction may prove true.

Should our planters, however, from the above glowing descriptions, entertain any fears that this new western production should supplant the Carolina rice, I would invite their attention to the few following facts :—

The Minnesota rice is the article known in our Northern, Western, and some of our Southern States, under the name of "wild rice," "zizania aquatica;" sometimes it is called wild oats. It abounds in the rivers and lakes of Western New-York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Ohio, &c., and is collected by the Indians on the shores of the northern rivers and lakes. It is described by Elliott, vol. 2, p. 585. Should our planters desire to make an experiment in its cultivation, to ascertain whether "it is superior in taste, and far more nutritious than the rice of the Southern States," they need not send to Minnesota for the seed, but just collect it along the shores of the Edisto, Santee and Savannah rivers, where it abounds; or, to save them the trouble of planting the seed, they may leave an acre of the native wild grass, which they are now hoeing up and destroying, and on the next autumn they will have a pretty good crop of the Minnesota rice. In Savannah, I perceived, it was sold in the market in its green state, as food for cattle, under the name of wild oats.

I have frequently seen it gathered on the north-western lakes. The seeds are so caduceus, and drop out so irregularly, that the Indians have very great difficulty in collecting them, which they do by paddling along the shores, bending the stalks over their canoes, and beating out the loose grains.

Men differ in taste, and whilst the Minnesota travellers described it as "infinitely mate; and the low country of South Carolina since, has become the centre of the rice-growing region. The first seed was white, such as is grown in China and Guiana to this day, and such as may still be seen produced on the uplands and inlands of America.

Some time before the Revolutionary war, the "gold seed" rice was introduced,[*] which, owing to its superiority, soon entirely superseded the white. It is now the rice of commerce, and the only grain referred to herein, when rice is mentioned, without being distinguished by some peculiar name or characteristic.

This "gold seed" has undergone improvement in latter years. Hence has resulted the production of a variety longer in the grain, but not perceptibly larger otherwise, which is highly esteemed by foreign consumers, when it is produced in perfection, commanding the highest prices in market. It is called "long grain" rice.[†]

The white rice of the present day measures three-eighths of an inch in length, the same in circumference around its shorter ax-

---

superior in taste, and far more nutritious than the rice of the Southern States," the writer of this, who was once obliged to verify the old adage, "necessitas non habet legem," and live upon it two weeks, considered it about as good as oats, with a similarity of taste, although somewhat more saccharine. Oatmeal, however, under certain emergencies, is not despicable food, a British statesman having publicly declared it superior to our corn meal. The hull, as the planters term it, or the pericarp, which envelops the grain, adheres so firmly, that there will be some difficulty in detaching it by our common rice mills. I have, however, swallowed it, boiled with the grains, without experiencing any inconvenience; and they might, on emergency, be bound up together, as a substitute for Graham flour, and prove beneficial to dyspeptics.

J. B.

[*] From what precise quarter, and how, has not been accurately ascertained.

[†] This peculiar grain, so eagerly sought out in the market at any price, when strictly prime, and so trying to the planter's skill, perseverance and judgment to produce in perfection, was obtained from the sowing of part of a single head on the plantation of the late Hon. Joshua Jno. Ward, of Waccamaw. Its appearance has only been accounted for thus: one of his friends, a planter on the Pee Dee, having a large body of forest land, had been in the habit of clearing a small portion every year or two since the year 1828. He spared no pains nor expense in getting the best seed to sow in this clearing; and for ten or twelve years after, the best seed of the last product, specially culled, was with diligent care selected for the newest field.

The result of this judicious and consistent attention was the appearance in market of seed rice, which became notorious for its purity and soundness.

Some years ago, Colonel Ward supplied his plantation with the seed of this Pee Dee plant. The winter after, while threshing out the crop produced from it, his overseer, Mr. Thompson, called his attention to a few grains of uncommon length, being a fraction of a broken head, which he picked up in the barn yard. Directing it to be carefully preserved, he had it sown in the spring, and nursed under the immediate inspection of the overseer. From these few grains, reproduced and replanted, year by year, and preserved through the many difficulties and disasters of several years, is derived the fancy "long grain" rice. For Colonel Ward's letter on its origin, see "Proceedings of the State Agricultural Society," Report on Rice, 1843, pp. 55–6.

is, the grain being in shape an irregular ellipsoid, and in weight numbers nine hundred and sixty grains to the ounce (Troy.)*

The gold seed, the rice of commerce, measures three-eighths of an inch in length, the same in circumference, and in weight numbers eight hundred and ninety-six grains to the ounce.*

The long grain rice measures five-twelfths of an inch in length, three-eighths of an inch in circumference, and in weight numbers eight hundred and forty grains to the ounce.*

The system of culture for one is suitable for any of these varieties. The first, it is said, will bear upland culture better. The last, (long grain,) it is supposed, will bear water better. It does not tiller as much, shoots up a taller stock, and longer head, but does not bear as many grains to the head as the other and more commonly approved kind of gold seed.

We begin the preparation for a new crop by (cleaning out the ditches every third year; the drains are cleaned out every year after ploughing) ploughing the land as soon after the harvest as the fields can be gleaned, and the scattered rice left on the surface be sprouted. The stubble is turned under by running a deep furrow, say eight inches.† This may be continued until the end of January. The sods should have the benefit of the entire winter frosts, if possible, the influence of which disintegrates and prepares them duly for the levelling.

In March, or when about preparing to plant, the harrows will be made to pass over the ploughed ground.‡ The hoe follows, to cut up and break the remaining clods and level the surface. The more the soil is comminuted, and the surface brought to a common level, the better. The trenchers then come in with hoes made for the purpose, and trace out with great accuracy the drills in which to sow the seed, fourteen, thirteen, or twelve inches apart from centre to centre. They will average (some drawing stake-rows, and others filling up the panels) three quarters of an acre to the hand, in day's work.[*]

---

* The specimens which have been compared, and which are now before you, are all the production of the same plantation, Nightingale Hall, Pee Dee. The seed of each variety (there is but one species, several varieties) is more or less polluted with a degenerate grain, the same for the most part in size, and in color of the chaff, as the original, but red within after being hulled, and much harder to be cleaned in the pounding mill. This corruption of the grain is supposed to have been occasioned by its continuous exposure in the fields, after the harvest-home, to all changes of weather and temperature, also from long submersion in the water of the ditches. It is called "red," or "volunteer rice." The seeds resting upon the surface, or slightly covered near it, vegetate earlier than the seed regularly sown for a crop—those somewhat deeply covered by the soil vegetate later. Both the one and the other, however, mature before the crop rice, rather than after. There is a kind so vicious and degenerate that it can never be gathered except when immature. As soon as the grains ripen, they drop in the field, being dislodged by a puff of wind, or a touch of the hand. Hence it is sometimes called "drop-rice."

† Both ploughing and harrowing are performed, ordinarily, by oxen—two yoke being required if we go deeper than six to eight inches; and two yoke get on badly in the swamp. The Tuscany breed furnishes the best oxen for our climate.

‡ After deep ploughing, the "plough turns" should be broken up with the spade, sinking the spade as deep as the plough has gone, say eight inches; an able-bodied man will break up in this way, and thoroughly, a surface of fifteen hundred square feet in a day. The field should be well drained, however.

The field now in high tilth, and resembling somewhat a garden spot, is ready for the seed. The sowers, with great care, yet with wonderful facility and precision, string the seed in the drills, putting two and a half or two and a quarter bushels to the acre. The labor of sowing depends so much upon the state of the weather, whether windy or moist, or otherwise, it is better not to require any given task. Generally, each woman will accomplish two to three tasks,[†] and do it well—it should never be done otherwise; for the seed cannot be recovered if too thick, nor if too thin, can the sowing be repeated without needless waste, and increased irregularity.

The best hands are chosen to sow rice. In fine April weather it is pleasing to behold the steady, graceful progress of a good sower.[‡] The sowing done, water is forthwith admitted, (two tides are better than one,) and the field remains covered until the sprout becomes green and begins to fork. The water must then be withdrawn, else the plants will be forced to the surface, by any slight agitation, and float away from their position.[§]

In twenty days after, or thereabouts, the rice is hoed and flowed deep, the water over-topping the plant for two or three days, in order to destroy the young grass just springing up among the plants, and also the insects that may have lodged

---

[*] When the land is new, the trench should be broad, say five inches, and the rice may be scattered in the trench; but for old land, and most of rice-land is now old, narrow trenching hoes are preferred, opening a drill three inches wide. Infected with grass-seed and volunteer rice, old land requires close hoeing, and every seed that vegetates outside the drill is cut up and destroyed.

[†] The task in the rice region of South Carolina is (150·^{2} feet) a half acre. This is the unit of land measurement among the negroes, and with practical planters. The acre, which is a rectangle (300 × 150 feet) made by two square half acres, contains 45,000 square feet.

[‡] It is a good plan to make handsome presents to the best sowers after the planting. When rice is to be covered with water, without a previous covering of earth, as described in the text, the seed must first be prepared by rolling it in clayed water, for process of which, see a note to the Memoir on Rice, p. 16; Appendix to Ruffin's Agricultural Survey of South Carolina; also the Supplement to the Proceedings of the State Agricultural Society. There are many planters who still prefer the old system, covering the seed with earth. In this case, after the seed is covered, the water is taken on the field for five or six days, to sprout the grain, when it is drawn off, and is returned only when the sprout, "in the needle state," is seen fairly above ground. This, "the point-flow," is held about four days, and then drawn off. After which the culture is the same as above described throughout.

[§] The reasoning for the successful substitution of a covering of water for a covering of earth in planting rice, and also for the requisition of sound and perfectly full seed, will be found in the law of germination and growth.

Professor Johnston thus expresses it:—"When a seed is committed to the earth, upon the blades, or which may have been generated among the stumps or roots, or stubble. At the end of two or three days the water is slacked down to about half the height of the plant, now somewhat stretched. At this depth it is held until the plants grow strong enough to stand erect, and will admit the laborers to walk between the trenches and pull out the long grass which shows itself, and which will now yield to very slight effort. If any rushes appear, they will now be plucked up by the root and borne out to the banks.

Two days after this weeding, the long water* will gradually be drawn off. A succeeding tide will be taken in and let off immediately, in order to wash out the ditches. Two men, furnished each with a long-handled rake of curved iron teeth, are put to rake from the ditches all the water-growth which impedes the draining, placing it on the side of the bank. In eight days (the land by that time should be dry) the smaller hoes† are used, and the soil is stirred as deep as it can be with them. The plant,

---

if the warmth and moisture are favorable, it begins to sprout. It pushes a shoot upwards, it thrusts a root downwards; but until the leaf expands and the root has fairly entered the soil, the young plant derives no nourishment other than water, either from the earth or from the air. It lives on the starch and gluten contained in the seed."

In the case of rice covered with water, the first shoot is radical, and tends downwards, but it does not take root until the air is admitted to the leaf, the lungs of the plant, then it becomes rooted instantly. If the water be not reduced when the sprout becomes green, (until the sprout is green it cannot bear the rays of the sun,) the expanding of the leaf in the water will draw up the unfixed root, and the whole will rise and float upon the surface.

The water, after floating the trash to the banks, should at no time be over deep, lest the process of germination be delayed, and with any imperfect or defective grains, be prevented altogether. I have known an entire sowing of a field lost by too deep flooding. The field, which was rather low, (reclaimed marsh,) was sown early in April, and the water let on inconsiderately deep. At the end of sixteen days I had the water drawn, and not a seed had germinated. The land was occasionally subject to the influence of salt water, but the water used was entirely fresh and sweet. The field was replanted in same manner as before, and flowed under my personal supervision. The seed, selected from the same parcel, sprouted readily, and the field yielded an abundant return. This was in 1840.

In Georgia, on one of Dr. Daniels' plantations, near Savannah, the Italian method has been pursued with a good degree of success, namely, the seed is first sprouted, then sown broad-cast over the field and covered up by the harrow, which, being reversed, is drawn over the surface. The culture there is with water chiefly. The planters on the Savannah River, where the land drains remarkably well, realize 12 per cent. from the proceeds of their crops.

* In Georgia and elsewhere, perhaps, this is called the "stretch flow." In that State, as well as in some parts of Carolina, the practice is common to continue the point flow into the "stretch" or long flow, without drawing the water until the latter be over. This free use of water, as it may be made to substitute one hoeing, may enable the planter to cultivate seven or eight acres to the hand, instead of five and six, as of old. But the proprietor who suffers this method to be practised in his culture, year by year, if his young crop be not often troubled by the maggot or root-worm, will probably find his land so polluted with water grasses after several years, and so packed, as to require rest and change of system to ameliorate it.

† The hoe now used has been reduced, latterly, to four inches in breadth.

just recovering from the effects of long water, and taking a dry growth, is putting forth new green blades and fresh roots, which, not long enough yet to be interfered with by the deep hoeing, very soon yield to the grateful influence of the air admitted, shoot vigorously into the loosened earth, and nourish a "good stalk."

In the course of fifteen or eighteen days, the field is hoed again and weeded. This last hoeing is also done with the small hoes, but very lightly, to avoid disturbing the roots, which are now extended nearly midway between the trenches.

As the plant is now beginning to joint, the laborers will step about with care, for if one be broken at the joint, it cannot be restored. A day or two after this third hoeing, the water is put on again, as deep as the last long-flow, and is gradually increased in depth after the rice-heads have fairly shot out.

This is called the "lay-by" flow.* Up to the time of this flow, is about ninety days for rice sown the first week in April. After this, to the period of maturity is from sixty to seventy days, during which the water is often changed, and kept fresh,† but is never entirely withdrawn, until the grain be ripe for the harvest. Meantime, should any grass have escaped the previous hoeings and weedings, it will show its crest before the rice matures, and be plucked up by the roots. All white rice will be stripped off by hand.

Harvest.—And now the grain is ripe for the sickle. The time for harvest is come. Gladsome, bounteous harvest! A season, it is true, of laborious exertion, but a season also of cheerful emulation, of rustic, joyous festivity. The rice is cut a day before you will say it is fully ripe.‡ The water is drawn off over night. Soon after the rising of a bright autumn sun, the reapers are seen amid the thick-hanging grain, shoulder-high, mowing it down with the old-fashioned sickle, dealing brisk and dexterous, but noiseless strokes. Before the dew is all gone, the rice is laid prostrate, even and orderly, across the porous stubble.

The next day, when quite dry of dew, it is tied up in sheaves, and borne away to the threshing yard, where it is well stacked before the night dew falls heavy. This last heavy but gleeful labor completes the field-culture of the rice plant.

---

* Some planters have this flow very shallow, insisting that a deep flow breeds worms, to the injury of the plant before it has shot out, in which case the only remedy is to dry.

† The improved and best means of keeping the water fresh is to furnish the field with two trunks—one to admit fresh water at every flood-tide, and the other to void it with the ebb, so that twice in twenty-four hours there is obtained a slight current through the field. This, besides lessening the infection of the atmosphere (miasmata) by stagnant water, keeps the roots of the plant cool and healthy, though it postpones the ripening of the rice some five or eight days.

‡ For rice sown 1st April the harvest begins usually from the 1st to the 10th of September.

When the stack has undergone its curing heat, and become cool again, the rice is threshed out by one of Emmons' Patent Machines, and sent to the pounding mill to be cleaned. The mill performs ingeniously enough the finishing process, thus: By steam power, the rough-rice is taken out of the vessel which freights it, up to the attic of the building—thence through the sand-screen to a pair of (five feet wide) heavy stones, which grind off the husk—thence into large wooden mortars, in which it is pounded by large iron-shod pestles, (weighing 250 to 350 pounds,) for the space of some two hours, more or less.

The rice, now pounded, is once more elevated into the attic, whence it descends through a rolling-screen, to separate whole grains from the broken, and flour from both; and also through wind-fans, to a vertical brushing screen, revolving rapidly, which polishes the flinty grain, and delivers it fully prepared, into the barrel or tierce, which is to convey it to market.[*]

The barrel is made by coopers attached to the mill; each one dresses his stuff and makes three barrels a day. He is paid twenty-five cents for each barrel made over his number. When the stuff is dressed previously, five barrels, and even more, may be made.[†]

The profits of a rice plantation of good size and locality are about eight per cent. per annum, independent of the privileges and perquisites of the plantation residence. Privileges and perquisites, which are neglected or undervalued by absentee proprietors, if not absolutely thrown away.

OF DRAINING AND MANURES.

The art of culture, however necessary, to be effectually taught by experience, and learned in practice, depends upon principles, for the knowledge of which we are indebted to science. In proportion as these are understood, and appreciated by farmers, will their system of practice be more or less improved. When a good system is applied with cheerful industry, patience, and perseverance, the grateful earth will seldom fail to yield her increase.

---

[*] For information on Mills and Milling, see Allston's Memoir on Rice; also Appendix to the same, D. E. F. Also, Report to Winyah and All-Saints' Agricultural Society, April, 1848.

For other particulars and experiments in the culture of rice, see sundry reports on the subject to the Patent Office Commissioner. Also, to the State Agricultural Society; Vol. of Proceedings, pp. 55, 88.

[†] The staves are of yellow pine, 40 inches in length; the heading of inch plank is made twenty-four inches in diameter. The barrel should contain at least six hundred pounds net. The barrels from the Butler estate in Georgia are much larger, weighing eight hundred pounds and more.

There were several machines for dressing staves, exhibited at the World's Fair in New-York. Class 5 and 6, Nos. 92, 184, (Hawkins'—this I saw in operation, and admired,) 384, 407. Class 9, Nos. 11 and 14, are grain separators—valuable to rice planters for preparing seed.

Light, heat, air and water, are the great fertilizers, furnished by bounteous Nature, for the intelligent use of man. Every ploughing, every hoeing, every flooding of the fields, should be done in reference to the influence of one or more of these universal agencies.

Without good draining, the most thorough preparation of the surface and subsoil, the most diligent labor after careful sowing, and the highest degree of manuring, will fail of producing the desired result. Water may be used so as partially to supersede its necessity in the culture of rice; but, ultimately, it will be followed by evil effects on the land.

Manures of various kinds are freely used in cotton planting: Guano, with plaster, and with Kettlewell's Salts, Mapes' preparation, and composts of litter with muck, marsh-mud, sedge, and sometimes salt.*

In rice-planting, the practice of manuring† is of recent origin, excepting, of course, that best of all dressings, to which we are indebted for increment of the soil itself, the natural deposit, namely, of sediment when the rivers overflow their banks, or silt from seaward, when the turbid waters, admitted into the fields, are held there, undisturbed for days. A good time to apply rice-flour to rice is, to scatter it between the trenches immediately after the long-flow.

If the dressing be too heavy, the rice, made too luxuriant, will lodge, and waste in the harvest. In applying lime, (100 bushels is safe, if there be plenty of stubble, or peaty fibre, or a thick native growth,) time should be given for it to act chemically, and to become incorporated with the soil before water is put on the land.

Rice-straw,‡ if listed into the fallow-ground, and well covered up with a bed of earth, will be decomposed by planting time, and make a fine manure, improving the crop in both quantity and quality.

---

* Every stable, whether for horses or cows, should be furnished with a tank, and conduits for the collection and preservation of liquid manures, otherwise so improvidently wasted.

Every farm-pen also should be provided with some convenient receptacle for the same, which is greatly more valuable than the dung of the cattle. A ditch (four feet by three) cut along the inner end of the stalls for oxen and cows, all around the pen, and filled in with rice-straw, or leaves, or anything else that will absorb the liquid voided, is a plan which I have found answer very well, and may do, for the want of a better. The ditch may be emptied once a month, and refilled with fresh straw.

† See Dr. Heriot's Report on Manuring Rice Land. Proceedings of Winyah and All-Saints' Agricultural Society, April 20th, 1848, p. 16.

Ravenel's Report on Manures. Proceedings of State Agricultural Society, p. 273. Patent Office Report on Manures, republished in *Cotton Planter*.

‡ In 1843, Mr. Ruffin, when treating of manures in the low country, (Agricultural Survey, p. 83,) said, "there is almost no straw, except on rice plantations, and where it is mostly thrown away."

Rice-chaff,* spread three or four inches thick over the fallow-ground, and ploughed in, will produce a like effect in course of time. It is not as readily decomposed as the straw, and may disappoint early expectation.

Rice-flour† is a still better, more stimulating dressing, but not so lasting in its effects. It may be applied (thirty bushels to the acre) broadcast, and ploughed in before planting, or it may be scattered between the trenches after the long water, as above described.

Now as to the labor, by means of which these crops are raised, these important results, both commercial and national, are obtained, the produce of which pays for three-fourths of all imports into the country, ($260,000,000.) Our laborers are descendants of the African bondsmen given to our ancestors by the mother country, at the same time that indigo, and rice, and cotton were sent to them to cultivate. They are well fed and clothed, well sheltered, and cared for in sickness, and during the infirmities and helplessness of old age. They are for the most part healthy and cheerful, and, when well trained, are very efficient laborers.

The negroes have provided for them all the necessaries of life

---

The worthy surveyor was probably misled by observing the neglected barnyard of some absentee, or some island estate, not having attached thereto any highland worth planting. The proprietor, who should throw away his straw either then or now, would be deemed by his neighbors a loose and thriftless planter. It must be acknowledged, however, that since the publication of their Analysis by the Winyah and All-Saints' Agricultural Society, both the straw and chaff of rice have been preserved with more care, and used extensively in manuring both swamp and highland. Prior to the Analysis the *chaff* was mostly thrown away.

Dr. Edward T. Heriot, who originated the system of manuring swamp land with rice straw, has not only turned it to good account in establishing his brand in the market, but has derived from it large aid in provisioning his plantation with potatoes and peas. He has furnished his neighbors, not only with the example, but the rule also, by which they are enabled to profit equally with himself.

For Dr. Heriot's method and its results in 1843, see Supplement to Transactions of the State Agricultural Society. Memoir on Rice—Appendix C. Also Transactions of the State Agricultural Society, p. 57.

* For an Analysis of the Offals of Rice, see a Report on the subject by Professor Sheppard, to the Winyah and All-Saints' Agricultural Society, as published by that Society. It is republished in the Supplement to the Volume of Transactions of the State Agricultural Society.

† For the consistent experiment made with rice-chaff and flour, we are indebted to the late Joshua John Ward, whose observation, judgment, and energy, in managing his large estate, were equalled by his humanity, hospitality, and willingness to communicate. The eminence which he attained as a planter, the simplicity of his character, and the sterling qualities of heart which gained him many friends, procured for him in 1851, on the part of the Legislature, the spontaneous offering of the honorary position of Lieutenant-Governor of South Carolina, on which he retired from public life.

in sufficient abundance. And they enjoy the privilege of procuring many comforts and indulgences.

In every Christian neighborhood, the means are afforded of Missionary instruction in their duty to God and to man. On most well-regulated plantations, the young negroes are taught specially; and to all, the way of salvation is preached. In short, the educated master is the negro's best friend upon earth. But it is not enough in all cases that the preaching of the Gospel is provided for our negroes; they must be induced to seek an interest in it—they must be won to obedience to the Divine law —to love the truth. Obviously, the strongest inducement is, example on our own part; next, a just, consistent, systematic administration of domestic government. Nothing sooner attracts the confidence of the negro, and commands his respect, than the illustration, in a system of management, of justice, tempered by kindness. But enough; let us do our present duty, kind Providence will smile upon our efforts.

In proportion as we shall have performed well our mission, so may we, with trust and hope, bequeath our inheritance to posterity; and so may each of us, when prostrate under the hand of time, and hourly expecting the summons of the last messenger on earth, with humble confidence look up towards the bar of our common Judge.

Art. VI.—GREAT CITIES OF THE WEST—CINCINNATI.

No. III.

[In our March number appeared a table showing the progress of population in American cities from the earliest period, followed by an article upon St. Louis. In the April number we gave a very detailed sketch of Buffalo, showing its commerce, resources and general wealth. It is now proposed to continue the series with Cincinnati, by adopting the statistics of the last report of the Chamber of Commerce, published in the *Prices Current*, by RICHARD SMITH, of that city.]

In our last report we took occasion to notice the movement that was being made with reference to the construction of a new canal around the Falls of the Ohio, at Portland. A very strong but unsuccessful effort was made to obtain an appropriation from Congress for this purpose. Our business men and capitalists, being fully aware of the advantages that would result to our city from having a canal of ample dimensions; and of the great injury that our commerce is sustaining, in consequence of the contracted dimensions of the present improvement; and almost despairing of securing favorable action on the part of the General Government, have taken steps to secure the construction of the work, as a private enterprise. Notwithstanding the numerous railroad outlets that have been created, our river commerce is rapidly increasing; and it must continue to increase in a still greater ratio, as produce from portions of the interior, through which new lines of railroads have been constructed, connecting with our city, will be poured in upon us with increased abundance; and a corresponding increase will be experienced in the receipts of groceries and general merchandise that will be required to supply the rapidly extending area of country, of which our city, from her natural position and railroad conveyances, is the great centre. Railroads cannot compete with water, in the conveyance of freights; and to the river our merchants must therefore continue to look, as the great inlet and outlet for our commerce with the seaboard cities and foreign countries.

So great has been the increase in the railroad enterprises in which our city is directly interested, that we are compelled to devote a larger space than usual to this branch of our report. We will, however, notice the several roads as briefly as possible.

The business on the Little Miami Railroad has continued to increase, both as regards freight and passengers. The Company are now constructing a second track. The following is a comparative statement of the earnings of the road, for twelve months ending July 31st:—

	Passengers.		*Freight and Mails.*	
	1851-'2.	1852-'3.	1851-'2.	1852-'3.
August	$23,095 65	$28,777 06	$25,663 23	$21,277 63
September	27,753 72	31,992 92	21,421 68	23,494 91
October	20,940 76	33,143 69	26,491 43	27,926 82
November	14,935 88	25,586 51	28,710 09	28,292 27
December	12,541 39	22,831 62	22,936 26	28,739 12
January	11,703 14	23,735 44	18,229 33	26,655 98
February	12,230 94	22,745 59	15,688 41	21,805 51
March	17,592 73	26,982 80	21,270 07	27,098 86
April	21,399 57	21,416 20	18,689 34	29,999 88
May	23,441 81	27,629 03	20,905 38	23,093 04
June	24,409 34	33,106 11	19,536 23	21,107 55
July	27,317 82	31,184 62	18,362 78	20,362 86
Totals	$237,368 75	$329,131 69	$257,904 23	$299,874 37

This Company is now working the Cincinnati and Hillsboro' Road, to Hillsboro', under a contract with the latter Company. The Cincinnati, Wilmington and Zanesville Road is also furnishing business to the Little Miami Road, the former being completed from Wilmington to Morrow, on the latter.

Business on the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton Railroad has also largely increased during the year, and the present condition of the road, and its connections with other roads, completed and in progress, warrant us in predicting a further increase in the receipts, during the ensuing year. We will refer to the several roads that will, when completed, contribute a large amount of business to the C., H. & D. Road. The Richmond and New-Castle Road is expected to be finished to the latter place by the first of November. The Indiana Central Road, from Richmond to Indianapolis, will be completed by the middle of October. With both of these companies business arrangements have been made. The latter, with the road from Hamilton to Richmond, will afford a railroad communication with Indianapolis and New-Castle, running through the most fertile portions of our neighboring State.. The Springfield and Columbus Road will be open in a few weeks to London, a point on the Xenia and Columbus Railroad, which will afford an outlet to Columbus. The Ohio and Indiana Road will be open to the Mad River Road in October, affording an admirable connection with Pittsburgh. The Junction Road from Sandusky to Cleveland will be open for travel in a few weeks. This road will be completely ballasted when open for travel, and it is said will be one of the best roads in the country. The time from Cincinnati to Cleveland by this route (via Dayton and Sandusky) will be 8¼ to 8½ hours. The following statement shows the earnings of this road for the twelve months ending July 31st:—

	From Passengers.		*Freight and Express.*		*Total.*
	1851-'2.	1852-'3.	1851-'2.	1852-'3.	1852-'3.
August	—	$15,458 00	—	$9,552 00	$25,110 00
September	$2,502 00	16,943 00	$14 00	12,194 00	29,137 00
October	16,306 00	18,589 00	532 00	11,412 00	30,001 00
November	11,832 00	15,285 00	607 00	12,329 00	27,614 00
December	11,445 00	12,112 00	4,887 00	11,719 00	23,831 00
January	8,736 00	16,191 00	6,008 00	13,352 00	29,543 00
February	9,893 00	13,755 00	4,376 00	13,613 00	27,368 00
March	13,557 00	19,244 00	5,509 00	16,119 00	35,363 00
April	14,314 00	20,651 00	6,166 00	15,399 00	36,050 00
May	15,386 00	21,694 00	7,313 00	13,366 00	35,060 00
June	16,315 00	20,528 00	7,780 00	11,774 00	32,302 00
July	17,768 00	23,452 00	8,532 00	10,750 00	34,202 00
Totals	$138,054 00	$213,892 00	$51,724 00	$151,579 00	$365,471 00

The Ohio and Mississippi Railroad from Cincinnati to Saint Louis is progressing with decided activity and vigor—87 miles from Cincinnati west to the Jeffersonville Railroad (securing a connection with Louisville) will be opened and ready for the cars in January next. About the same number of miles, extending from St. Louis east, will be in readiness at the same time; so that early in January, 1854, more than half the work connecting the two great inland cities of the United States will be completed. The work is also well advanced on the intermediate sections, and it is the determination of the two companies to complete the entire line by January, 1855. The iron for the whole line has been purchased, and is now being delivered at Cincinnati and St. Louis.

The financial affairs of the Company are in a flourishing condition. The sale of the first mortgage bonds in London, by Prof. Mitchell, was upon the most advantageous terms—placing the securities of this Company on a level with the most favored roads in this country.

The stock of the Company, for an unfinished road, is almost without precedent in value. The last sale at the Exchange was at 93½, and 95 has been obtained privately. When the extraordinary change which this road will cause in the stream of travel to and from the Great West is taken into consideration, no surprise will be felt in the estimate which capitalists place upon this stock.

It now requires three to four days to pass from Cincinnati to St. Louis; when this road is completed, twelve hours only will be necessary to transport passengers over this route.

At our request, Mr. E. Gest, Civil Engineer, has kindly furnished the following statement of roads with which he is connected, either as Engineer or President—all diverging from this city:—

"1st. The Dayton and Cincinnati (Short Line), extending from Broadway and Court streets in Cincinnati, through Reading, Sharon, Chester, Middletown, Franklin, Miamisburgh, Carrollton and Alexandersville, to Dayton. Length 52½ miles; maximum grade $39\frac{6}{10}$ feet; minimum radius 1,010 feet. It is all under contract, excepting engines and depôt buildings, to Messrs. Ferrell & Dunham, who have been prosecuting the work on the tunnel for about six months, and at a few points along the other portions of the road for sixty days.

"All the shafts and the north approach of the tunnel are now completed, except the arching; the south approach is about one-half complete. The workmen are now engaged in excavating the heading from each end and the shafts, making at this time eight points of operation in the tunnel proper. As about five feet can be made per twenty-four hours (the tunnelling being driven night and day) at each point, with a *full working* force, they can advance at the rate of about seven hundred and twenty feet per month hereafter, allowing eighteen working days to be made, which can be readily, should the work be driven with the proper practicable force and energy. Consequently, it is not only practicable, but probable, that the tunnel and entire work will be completed in sixteen months. All doubt as to the character of the material through which the tunnel will pass, that may heretofore have existed, is now removed; and it is now certain that nothing but indurated marl, with a few layers of limestone, will be encountered; affording probably the least difficult material to tunnel through, that is to be found. The length of actual tunnelling is 8,000 feet; which, with arched approaches of 2,000 feet, will make the total length of arch, or tunnel when completed, 10,000 feet, or about $1\frac{9}{10}$ miles.

"The Company is amply prepared with means to complete the work, as they have over eight hundred thousand dollars of available subscriptions to its capital stock, and parties stand ready to take up the remaining two hundred thousand, if required. The whole cost of the work, with its necessary real estate, buildings and machinery, including a liberal allowance for discount and interest, will not vary far from $2,400,000.

"2d. The Cincinnati, Lebanon and Xenia, and the Xenia and Delaware roads, although operating under two charters, yet in fact is but one interest. The names of the several places in the title indicate its route. It is now under contract to Messrs. Van Horn, Williams & Buchannan, from this city to Xenia, a distance of fifty-two miles; a large amount of grading has been done between Lebanon and Mason. From the latter place to this city will be commenced this week, and from Lebanon north to Delaware in time to secure the completion of the entire road by winter of the coming year. When completed, the distance to Xenia will be about twelve miles less than by the Little Miami Road; or to Delaware about twenty-eight miles less than by the latter route in connection with the Columbus and Cleveland Road. The whole length will be about 112 miles, with favorable grades and curves. Its subscribed and pledged means are considered ample for its construction. It is the intention to extend it to Cleveland, and arrangements are partially completed for so doing. It is supposed to be tributary to the Dayton Short Line; should, however, arrangements not be made with that Company, it will enter the western part of the city, via the Valley of Mill Creek, and connect directly with the Ohio and Mississippi Road. The total cost, if it enters Cincinnati on an independent line, including depôts, building stock, real estate, discount and interest, &c., will not be far from $3,000,000.

"3d. Is the Cincinnati and Fort Wayne Railroad, which will pass through Hamilton, Rossville, Duntown, Oxford, Fair Haven, Richmond, Newport, Winchester, Camden and Bluffton, to Fort Wayne, Indiana—total length, 149 miles—maximum grade, 39$\frac{6}{10}$ feet—minimum radius of curvature, 1,910 feet. It will be a superior road, of cheap and easy construction, with the exception of twenty miles, and can be worked rapidly and economically, by being unusually straight, with but a moderate amount of maximum grade. Although operating under three charters, yet it is one interest, and under one control. It was recently let to a heavy capitalist, to be completed within two years, for the sum of $4,500,000. The terms of the contract require it to be constructed and equipped in most ample manner, with the best of machinery, station-houses and other conveniences, &c., necessary to make it a complete and perfect railroad, equal in every respect to the best roads in the United States.

"About all the means required by this road, to meet the terms of the contract, have been procured; consequently, there is nothing to prevent its certain and early completion. This road was originally intended to reach Cincinnati over the section of the Dayton

Short Line, lying south of Sharon, but no arrangement with that Company has been made, and it is possible that it will be built into the city on an independent line, via the Valley of Mill Creek, should not an arrangement be made with the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton Company to build alongside of their track south of Hamilton.

"From Fort Wayne south to Winchester, for 61 miles, the road is expected to be finished and in operation by the first of July of next year, and from thence to the city by the fall of the year following. The Company intend at the earliest day to extend the line northerly, to the Central Michigan Road, if not to the Mackinaw Straits—consequently, this road will be a fruitful tributary to the business of Cincinnati, as it will be a long line, passing through a country susceptible of the highest cultivation, and through its connections with the Central Indiana at Richmond, the Indiana and Bellefontaine at Winchester, the Wabash Valley, Ohio and Indiana, and Fort Wayne and Chicago Railroads at Fort Wayne, and the Northern Indiana and Central Michigan Railroads, receive an auxiliary traffic not surpassed by any road in the West; and through it and tributaries will be distributed a larger amount of the groceries and merchandise of Cincinnati, as well as be poured into Cincinnati a larger amount of produce, than over any other road radiating therefrom.

"4th. The Fort Wayne, Lacon and Platt River Valley Railroad, which extends from Fort Wayne, Indiana, on nearly a due west line through Lacon on the Illinois River, New-Boston on the Mississippi River, to Council Bluff at mouth of Platt on the Missouri River, for a distance of about 560 miles. About two and a half millions of dollars is subscribed, or pledged towards its construction, and it is expected to be put under contract this fall; and with its extension due east into Pennsylvania, with a branch to Buffalo, is destined at no distant day to take a position among railroads second to none in the country, and will prove a powerful auxiliary to the Cincinnati and Fort Wayne Road, and those having connections with it."

The Cincinnati and Mariètta Railroad is progressing steadily. It is ready for the iron from Chilicothe to Greenfield, and from the latter point to Blanchester the work will be proceeded with without delay. From Chilicothe eastward the road will be ready for the track by the first of November. The increase of stock subscription during the year is $1,722,000, which added to former subscriptions make a total basis of $3,717,000.

The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which was opened to Wheeling in January last, affords a new route to the Eastern seaboard for freight and passengers. This road will be prepared to transport the coming winter, from the West, 500 to 600 tons of produce daily.

The running time for freight trains is thirty-one hours from Wheeling to Baltimore; and in connection with the Union Line of steamers on the Ohio River, property may be carried from Cincinnati to any of the Eastern markets in five to seven days. It is confidently expected that the Company will modify the present freight tariff. This would secure to the road a very large portion of the Western trade.

The Cincinnati Western Railroad runs from Cincinnati, in a northwestern direction, to the western line of the State, where it connects with the Cincinnati, Cambridge and Chicago Road, running from the State line via Cambridge to New-Castle, Ind. The distance from Cincinnati to New-Castle is 73 miles. The whole line is under contract to A. De Graff & Co., who agree to make the road ready for the cars by the first of October, 1854. A large force is now at work along the whole line, and thirteen miles of the track will be laid during the ensuing fall.

The Cincinnati and Indianapolis Short Line Railroad has been projected, and confident hopes are entertained that it will be shortly constructed.

The work on the Covington and Lexington Railroad is progressing rapidly. The cars are now running a distance of twenty miles from Covington. We hoped to be able to present full particulars relative to the condition of this company, both present and prospective, but having been disappointed by a gentleman connected with the road, who promised to furnish the information, we are compelled to pass it with this brief notice.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

In another place, tables will be found, exhibiting the value of imports and exports at this port during the year, so far as such value could be ascertained with any degree of accuracy. In some instances we had to rely entirely upon estimates; but, in most cases, the value is made up according to the actual average prices. The articles which come under the head of Merchandise, embracing hardware, dry goods, crockery, &c., in the import table, we valued at a price greatly below the standard by which the value of these articles is calculated by the collectors of lake ports; but we think our figures approximate nearer to the truth than theirs. A great many articles are received here of which no account is or can be taken; and our figures do not, of course, cover the entire imports. This is true to a greater extent still of the exports. The various manufactures, which are exported largely, are not embraced to any extent, and we have not attempted an estimate. We do not pretend to exhibit more than the value of the principal articles exported. Our aim in making up these tables has been, not to make a large show, but to present figures that may be relied upon, as far as they go, as being near to the truth. And in this connection, it is proper to remark, that in other places, the common practice is, to include all goods that may be received, whether for reshipment or not, in the table of imports. This is not the case here. Goods received for reshipment,—unless consigned to a city merchant,—are not noticed farther than to enter them upon the books of the Exchange, as for reshipment. Thus, large quantities of merchandise and produce touch at our landing which are not considered as properly belonging to the commerce of the port. In other places, as already intimated, a different view is taken of the matter. The total value of imports and exports is as follows:—

Imports.		*Exports.*	
1851-'2.	1852-'3.	1851-'2.	1852-'3.
$41,256,199 00	$51,230,644 00	$33,334,869 00	$36,266,108 00

With reference to the commerce of the port, we will offer but a few remarks, the details of the year's business being fully exhibited in the tables annexed. The number of steamboat arrivals during the year was 4,058, against 3,675 last year. The tonnage has increased in a greater proportion—the boats having been generally of a larger size than in former years. Two hundred and ninety-eight different steamboats arrived at the port during the year, with an aggregate tonnage of 76,647. This is an increase in number of twenty-five boats, and in tonnage about twenty-six thousand tons. The average tonnage is 257 tons, custom-house measurement, while last year's average was 230. The custom-house and actual tonnage arrived during the last two years is shown by the following figures:—

	Custom-House.	*Actual.*
1852-'53	$1,042,900 00	$1,390,541 00
1851-'52	845,250 00	1,127,000 00
Increase	$197,650 00	$263,541 00

The number of flatboat arrivals during the year was 5,880, of which 2,940 arrived at the landing between Walnut and Plum streets. These boats were ladened with wood, lumber, bark, iron, salt, coal, stone, and various descriptions of produce. With the exception of coal, salt, iron, and produce, no account is taken of receipts by these conveyances; and the articles thus omitted are only partly included in our table showing the value of imports.

We shall now proceed to notice, under respective heads, the course of the market for the articles which enter most extensively into our commerce.

STEAMBOAT BUILDING.

This business has exhibited, during the year, a moderate but steady increase; and the tonnage constructed since our last annual report is larger in amount than in any previous year in the history of our city. The contracted dimensions of the Portland Canal continue to operate against the interests of our steamboat builders—as boats required, and most profitable for the lower trade, could not be passed through the locks—and rather than risk the uncertainty of passing over the falls, many boats are constructed below, which would otherwise be built in this city. With reference to the action that has been taken, and the progress that has been made during the year with reference to a new canal, we have written fully elsewhere.

The following is a list of the Steamers and Barges constructed and registered during the year. The tonnage represents the custom-house measurement:—

Names of Boats.	*Tonnage.*	*Names of Boats.*	*Tonnage.*
Alice	130	Grand Tower	570
Dresden	548	Flag	236
Norma	378	Liah Tuna	654
Mattie Wayne	300	Isaac D. Earley	348
Union	209	Franklin Pierce	349
Pike	245	Henry Chouteau	623
Memphis No. 2	319	N. W. Thomas	419
Ben Lee	122	Jacob Strader	906
Brigadier Gen'l Stokes	140	J. L. Avery	322
Charleston	345		
Umpire No. 3	112	Total Steamboat tonnage	9,334
Wetumpka	313	Barge Jenny Lind	270
Mediator	422	" Sam. Hibberd	227
Tecumseh	418	" Empire	195
Sun	157	" Duchess	226
Telegraph No. 3	748		
		Total tonnage	10,252

COMPARATIVE AGGREGATES.

1852-'53—No. 29	tons	10,252	1848-'49..No. 23	tons	7,281
1851-'52.. " 33		8,896	1847-'48.. " 29		10,233
1850-'51.. " 31		8,206	1846-'47.. " 32		8,268
1849-'50.. " 16		4,560	1845-'46.. " 25		7,657

The tonnage constructed in the year 1847–'48 was nearly as great as that built during the past year; but an unusual demand existed that season for steamboats, in consequence of the large foreign demand that was experienced for breadstuffs.

VALUE OF IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF CINCINNATI DURING THE YEARS ENDING AUGUST 31ST, 1852 AND 1853.

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	1852'-53. Value.	1851-'52. Value.
Apples, gr..bbls	19,845	$24,806	$106,844
Beef	1,118	12,298	14,481
Do., tcs	295	4,572	14,855
Bagging, pcs	119	297	142
Barley, bush	226,844	90,737	40,447
Beans	26,439	72,706	21,219
Butter, bbls	16,464	494,502	265,075
Do., firkins and kegs	11,331	181,296	178,360
Blooms, tons	3,928	234,600	200,800
Bran, etc., sks	62.629	40,708	65,507
Candles, bxs	2.883	20,181	1,632
Corn, bush	723.334	303,800	196,136
Cornmeal	17,357	9,546	3.456
Cider, bbls	1,238	3,714	2,022
Cheese, cks	103	1,802	552
Do. bxs	212,337	672,400	604,141
Cotton, bales	16,550	711,650	638,800
Coffee, sks	109,138	1,746,208	1,627,444
Codfish, drums	1,140	35,340	10,775

VALUE OF IMPORTS—(*Continued.*)

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	1852-'53. $ Value.	1851-'52. Value.
Cooperage, pcs	194,665	$116,799	$81,070
Eggs, bxs and bbls	14,833	111,247	42,176
Flour, bbls	449,069	1,728,992	1,625,334
Feathers, sks	10,539	252,936	80,592
Fish, sund., bbls	22,216	244,398	190,722
Do. kegs and kits	3,925	11,805	2,150
Fruits, dried, bush	44,515	89,030	49,754
Grease, bbls	3,152	44,128	29,040
Glass, bxs	42,963	107,407	99,000
Do. ware, pkgs	34,646	155,907	16,265
Hemp, bdls. and bales	20,079	92,508	407,517
Hides, loose, No	48,808	141,644	27,260
Hides, green, lbs	35,178	1,758	2,470
Hay. bales	6,432	14,472	23,195
Herrings, bxs	11,486	5,743	2,574
Hogs, No	420,595	4,826,842	3,691,690
Hops, bales	2,581	154,860	95,460
Iron and Steel, pcs	294,001	470,401	291,160
Do., bdls	66,131	264,524	202,729
Do., tons	14,124	395,472	242,664
Lead, pigs	57,089	228,356	171,040
Lard, bbls	51,747	983,193	756,967
Do. kegs	26,157	130,785	137,208
Leather, bdls	19,689	196,890	102,456
Lemons, bxs	7,138	32,121	22,170
Lime, bbls	75,745	60,586	51,853
Liquors, hhds, and pipes	4,379	394,110	284,560
Mdz. and sund., pkgs	538,056	16,141,680	13,761,290
Mdz., tons	1,102	661,200	1,174,800
Molasses, bbls	115,112	1,359.254	1,117,584
Malt, bush	43,759	30,631	29,889
Nails, kgs	104,158	468,711	192,567
Oil, bbls	10.507	294,196	232,540
Oranges, bxs. and bbls	8,924	53,604	27,280
Oakum, bales	2,965	38,545	22,116
Oats, bush	283,251	113,300	49,467
Oil Cake, lbs	14,000	8,750	1.237
Pork and Bacon, hhds	15,251	915,060	465,214
Do., tcs	3,550	71,000	43,714
Do., bbls	39,517	606,585	237,515
Do., in bulk, lbs	26,868,341	1,660,803	991,973
Potatoes, bbls	15,525	19,406	25,923
Pig Iron, tons	30,179	1,297,697	543,570
Pimento and Pepper, bags	5,590	83,850	18,525
Rye, bush	53,670	32,202	29,158
Rosin, Tar, etc., bbls	19,983	79,932	49,644
Raisins, bxs	25,433	76,299	58,894
Rope, Twine, &c., pkgs	4,173	27,074	16,015
Rice, tcs	5,346	149,686	94,550
Sugar, hhds	49,229	2,313,763	2,274,992
Do., bbls	24,004	336,050	213,316
Do., bxs	2,115	63,450	67,770
Seed, Flax, bbls	51,752	155,256	144,222
Do. Grass	14,946	224,040	119,019
Do. Hemp	1,040	2,600	456
Salt, sks	71,626	93,125	118,705
Do., bbls	78,080	117,129	87,030
Shot, kgs	1,145	25,335	28,506
Tea, pkgs	22,379	459,475	320,250
Tobacco, hhds	7,881	681,804	527,100
Do., bales	2,478	17,346	9,994
Do., boxes and kegs	48,201	1,060,422	461,900
Tallow, bbls	3,463	79,649	88,950
Wines, bbls. and ¼ casks	9,563	364,394	156,670
Do, bkts. and bxs	9,441	113,292	83,220
Wheat, bush.	343,649	257,733	226,492
Wool, bales	6,748	274,416	228,100
Whisky. bbls	280,317	1,130,409	1,773,122
Yarns, Cotton, pkgs	7,362	110,431	16,254
Yarns, bales	115.841	86,881	662,507
Lumber, feet	75,000,000	2,125.000	950,000
Coal, bush	6,000,000	540.000	400,000
Shingles, M	30,000,000	75,000	60,000
Staves, Wood and Stone	—	197,000	160,000
Total Imports		$51,230,644	$41,256,190
Value of Exports		$36,266,108	$32,228,801

DESTINATION OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES EXPORTED FROM THE PORT OF CINCINNATI, FOR TWO YEARS, COMMENCING SEPTEMBER 1ST, AND ENDING AUGUST 31ST, EACH YEAR.

COMMODITIES.	*To N. Orleans.*		*To other down river ports.*		*To up river ports.*		*Via Canals and Railways.*	
	'51-'2.	'52-'3.	'51-'2.	'52-'3.	'51-'2.	'52-'3.	'51-'2.	'52-'3.
Apples, gr	596	2,484	4,913	2,998	853	440	861	598
Alcohol	2,395	2,659	14,527	1,446	1,665	1,766	2,093	3.798
Beef	16,614	23,865	396	913	1,021	675	1,967	1,629
Do., tcs	7,789	15,555	—	49	941	742	264	969
Beans, bbls	1,342	3,676	246	138	19	68	4	43
Brooms, doz	2,016	2,435	4,872	5,198	581	1,614	464	1,899
Butter, bbls	1,731	2,822	755	940	90	93	430	78
Do., firkins & kgs	25,045	25,890	455	3,851	648	51	1,151	2,524
Bran, etc., sks	322	446	6,442	4,260	3,766	4,650	12	430
Bagging, pcs	10,214	5,526	2,690	8,251	—	—	14	280
Corn, sks	7,398	367	2,364	314	36,331	31,948	3,138	26,503
Cornmeal, bbls	684	209	111	17	62	4	171	97
Cheese, cks	8	—	13	49	—	—	50	—
Do., bxs	60,119	52,479	79,178	78,517	4,746	3,685	6,646	8.335
Candles	53,164	66,123	33,188	33,607	17,615	32,436	17,760	17,573
Cattle, head	58	29	8	45	132	51	1,642	2,506
Cotton, bales	25	61	25	196	6,912	9,502	1,838	2,409
Coffee, sks	5	26	13,749	20,232	9,081	9,592	20,819	37,272
Cooperage, pcs	26,091	30,175	16.575	31,307	5,783	12,786	15,824	29,590
Eggs, bbls	6,728	4,869	457	436	40	392	1,935	3,062
Flour	209,569	202,877	85,712	48,734	11,107	19,109	1,803	42,127
Feathers, sks	49	108	126	29	4,072	5,449	3,629	3,924
Fruit, dried, bus	225	2,063	2,532	12,726	499	612	3 157	3,450
Grease, bbls	262	—	5	16	942	1,053	3,523	5,041
Grass Seed	20	283	5,853	4,782	948	2,019	766	1,229
Horses, head	150	417	624	952	134	293	36	110
Hay, bales	76	1,970	210	1,715	202	72	6	156
Hemp	—	—	602	496	678	549	2,336	5,041
Hides, lbs	—	—	—	—	—	—	142,823	28,449
Hides, No	—	—	1,307	4,265	17.586	16,026	12,880	15,951
Iron, pcs	4,673	6,626	87,306	95,477	9,226	8,522	71,204	111,524
Do., bdls	738	2,567	21,596	26,616	2,464	2,071	11,368	24,227
Do., tons	62	52	2,079	2,209	1,642	973	7,546	11,021
Lard, bbls	26,746	18,874	482	110	6.099	10,635	14 535	13,033
Do., kegs	87,769	65,938	4,863	1,899	5,910	17,769	17,303	13,044
Lard Oil, bbls	10,120	13,270	2,977	2,975	4,951	5,905	6,782	9,440
Linseed Oil	3,161	1,176	2.069	2,034	1,291	1,637	2,716	1,641
Molasses	—	—	4,294	7,680	25,154	32,894	19,418	24,482
Oil Cake, tons	5	1,401	2	16	—	—	1,594	2,342
Oats, sks	1,690	6,376	433	54	595	85	—	82
Potatoes, etc., bbls	8,408	4,938	9,552	3,403	801	1,684	5,083	3,054
Pork and Bacon, hhds	22,577	20,225	2,351	692	14,917	18,742	4,088	7,491
Do., tcs	12,422	18,844	760	952	12,373	21,408	8,843	11,950
Do., bbls	117,007	103.626	2,968	222	5,173	8,629	6,412	23,130
Do., bxs	1,630	1,892	2	2	580	3,546	160	898
Do. in bulk, lbs	1,556,010	139,601	581,385	135,762	1,471,358	898,821	304,190	972,803
Rope, etc., pkgs	2.227	4,468	5,232	8,007	629	722	1,127	1,160
Soap, bxs	5,486	6,521	14,266	15,838	4,278	5,799	4,003	8,878
Sheep, head	—	300	30	102	—	—	15	650
Sugar, hhds	6	—	2,005	3,180	8,144	8,100	10,205	20,335
Salt, bbls	—	—	6,445	7,478	507	222	20,070	25,070
Do, sks	25	—	9,220	18,320	4,257	8,216	2,810	5,650
Seed. flax, bbls	24	88	3,064	2,177	327	414	75	864
Sundry mdz., pkg	17,507	11,129	273,048	324,687	142,950	133,770	223,196	567.949
Do. mdz., tons	2,232	469	1,188	670	163	39	7,658	4,936
Do. liquors, bbls	4,820	5,035	27,981	30,291	5,398	5,417	11,149	12,965
Do. maf'res, pcs	18,149	30,418	39,720	112,506	3,176	9,185	5,155	9.530
Do. prodc., pkgs	1,145	1,140	25,470	19,110	7,931	24,663	7,786	3,505
Starch, bxs	10,876	13,052	5,108	7,524	872	1,604	1,437	4,257
Tallow, bbls	760	283	394	563	854	1,475	1,121	2,326
Tobacco, kgs & bxs	1,333	1,815	5,765	9,556	6,016	4,264	12,647	16,222
Do. hhds	2,399	434	329	281	467	252	7,626	5,925
Do. bales	—	—	250	312	42	385	337	644
Vinegar, bbls	264	449	3,442	4,107	902	1,208	1,357	2,490
Whisky	148,848	129,111	72.020	56,801	46,736	56,654	8,520	15,050
Wool, bales	—	—	855	682	1,722	7,236	1,126	1,611
Wool, lbs	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,972	1,586
White Lead, kgs	1,490	2,645	22,900	36,344	5,100	7,445	26,024	29,227
Castings, pcs	4,370	3,962	24,289	51,454	1,067	2,201	4,196	9,859
Do., tons	478	1,746	27	448	—	52	1,124	852

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY STATEMENT OF STEAMBOAT DEPARTURES AT THIS PORT FOR TWO YEARS ENDING AUGUST 31ST, EACH YEAR.

	DEPARTED FOR									
	New-Orleans.		*Pittsburgh.*		*St. Louis.*		*Other Ports.*		*Total.*	
MONTHS.	'51-'2.	'52-'3.	'51-'2.	'52-'3.	'51-'2.	'52-'3.	'51-'2.	'52-'3.	'51-'2.	'52-'3.
September	7	15	14	35	17	27	202	245	240	322
October	3	3	24	25	18	28	203	209	248	259
November	26	27	37	69	27	26	246	229	336	347
December	16	45	32	58	8	19	145	235	201	354
January	23	47	19	49	3	16	191	233	236	345
February	39	37	52	53	19	14	224	236	334	340
March	37	23	69	68	36	33	260	260	401	384
April	28	21	66	58	33	34	216	289	343	390
May	25	16	75	59	24	20	240	313	364	408
June	14	8	50	31	19	19	245	277	328	335
July	14	4	29	15	16	24	239	255	298	298
August	4	4	32	47	21	28	225	261	282	340
Total	326	250	498	567	241	268	2,536	3,041	3,611	4,113

Art. VII.—SUBMARINE TELEGRAPH ACROSS THE ATLANTIC.

LETTER BY LIEUT. MAURY.

SIR—The United States brig Dolphin, Lieutenant Commanding O. H. Berryman, was employed last summer upon special service connected with the researches that are carried on at this office concerning the winds and currents of the sea.

Her observations were confined principally to that part of the ocean which the merchantmen, as they pass to and fro upon the business of trade between Europe and the United States, use as their great thoroughfare.

Lieutenant Berryman availed himself of this opportunity to carry along also a line of deep-sea soundings from the shores of Newfoundland to those of Ireland.

The result is highly interesting, in so far as the bottom of the sea is concerned, upon the question of a submarine telegraph across the Atlantic, and I therefore beg leave to make it the subject of a special report.

This line of deep-sea soundings seems to be decisive of the question as to the practicability of a submarine telegraph between the two continents, in so far as the bottom of the deep sea is concerned.

From Newfoundland to Ireland the distance between the nearest points is about 1,600 miles; and the bottom of the sea between the two places is a plateau, which seems to have been placed there especially for the purpose of holding the wires of a submarine telegraph, and of keeping them out of harm's way. It is neither too deep nor too shallow; yet it is so deep, that the wires, but once landed, will remain forever beyond the reach of vessels' anchors, icebergs, and drifts of any kind; and so shallow that the wires may be readily lodged upon the bottom.

The depth of this plateau is quite regular, gradually increasing from the shores of Newfoundland to the depth of from 1,500 to 2,000 fathoms as you approach the other side.

The distance between Ireland and Cape St. Charles, or Cape St. Lewis, in Labrador, is somewhat less than the distance from any point of Ireland to the nearest point of Newfoundland.

But whether it would be better to lead the wires from Newfoundland or Labrador is not now the question; nor do I pretend to consider the question as to the possibility of finding a time calm enough, the sea smooth enough, a wire long enough, a ship big enough, to lay a coil of wire sixteen hundred miles in length; though I have no fear but that the enterprise and ingenuity of the age, whenever called on with these problems, will be ready with a satisfactory and practical solution of them.

I simply address myself at this time to the question in so far as the bottom of the sea is concerned, and as far as that the greatest practical difficulties will, I apprehend, be found after reaching soundings at either end of the line, and not in the deep sea.

I submit herewith a chart showing the depth of the Atlantic according to the deep-sea soundings, made from time to time on board of vessels of the navy, by authority of the department, and according to instructions issued by the Chief of the Bureau of Ordnance and Hydrography. This chart is Plate XIV. of the sixth edition of Maury's Sailing Directions.

By an examination of it, it will be perceived that we have acquired by these simple means a pretty good idea as to the depression below the sea-level of that portion of the solid crust of our planet which underlies the Atlantic Ocean and constitutes the basin that holds its waters.

A wire laid across from either of the above-named places on this side, will pass to the north of the Grand Banks, and rest on that beautiful plateau to which I have alluded, and where the waters of the sea appear to be as quiet and as completely at rest as it is at the bottom of a mill-pond.

It is proper that the reasons should be stated for the inference that there are no perceptible currents, and no abrading agents at work at the bottom of the sea upon this telegraphic plateau.

I derive this inference from a study of a physical fact which I little deemed, when I sought it, had any such bearings.

It is unnecessary to speak on this occasion of the germs which physical facts, even apparently the most trifling, are often found to contain.

Lieut. Berryman brought up with Brooks' deep-sea sounding apparatus specimens of the bottom from this plateau.

I sent them to Prof. Bailey, of West Point, for examination under his microscope. This he kindly gave, and that eminent microscopist was quite as much surprised to find, as I was to learn, that all these specimens of deep-sea soundings are filled with microscopic shells; to use his own words, "not a particle of sand or gravel exists in them."

These little shells, therefore, suggest the fact that there are no currents at the bottom of the sea whence they came—that Brooks' lead found them where they were deposited in their burial-place after having lived and died on the surface, and by gradually sinking were lodged on the bottom.

Had there been currents at the bottom, these would have swept and abraded, and mingled up with these microscopic remains the debris of the bottom of the sea, such as oaze, sand, gravel, and other matter; but not a particle of sand or gravel was found among them. Hence the inference that these depths of the sea are not disturbed either by waves or currents.

Consequently, a telegraphic wire once laid there, there it would remain, as completely beyond the reach of accident as it would be if buried in air-tight cases. Therefore, so far as the bottom of the deep sea between Newfoundland, or the North Cape, at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and Ireland, is concerned, the practicability of a submarine telegraph across the Atlantic is proved.

The present state of Europe invests the subject of a line of telegraphic wires across the Atlantic with a high degree of interest to the government and people of the United States. A general European war seems now almost inevitable; the attitude which this government will assume with regard to all the belligerent powers that may be involved in that war is that of strict, impartial neutrality.

The better to enable this government to maintain that position, and the people of the United States to avail themselves of all the advantages of such a position, a line of daily telegraphic communication with Europe would be of incalculable service.

In this view of the subject, and for the purpose of hastening the completion of such a line, I take the liberty of suggesting for your consideration the propriety of an offer from the proper source, of a prize to the company through whose telegraphic wire the first message shall be passed across the Atlantic.

I have the honor to be, respectfully, &c.,

M. F. Maury, Lieut. U. S. Navy.

Art. VIII.—SYSTEM OF COTTON MANUFACTURES IN THE U. S.

The following Report was prepared by the Commissioners who were sent by Great Britain to the opening of the Crystal Palace in New-York. It is very minute and instructive. We append it to the statistics of this branch of manufacture as published in an early Report from the Census Office:—

COTTON MANUFACTURES OF THE U. S.

STATES.	No. of establishments in operation.	Capital invested.	Bales of Cotton.	Value of all raw material.	Number of hands employed.		Average wages per month.		Value of entire products.
					Males.	*Females*	*Males.*	*Females.*	
Maine....	12	$3,329,700	31,531	$1,573,110	780	2,959	$29 35	$12 15	$2,596,356
N. Hampshire	44	10,950,500	83,026	4,839,429	2,911	9,211	26 00	13 47	8,830,619
Vermont......	9	202,500	2,243	114,415	94	147	15 53	12 65	196,100
Massachus'ts.	213	28,455,630	223,607	11,289,309	9,293	19,437	22 90	13 60	19,712,461
Rhode Island.	158	6,675,000	50,713	3,484,579	4,959	5,916	18 60	12 95	6,447,120
Connecticut..	128	4,219,100	39,463	2,500,062	2,708	3,478	19 08	11 80	4,257,522
New-York....	86	4,176,920	37,778	1,985.973	2,632	3,688	18 32	9 68	3,591,989
New-Jersey...	21	1,483,500	14.437	666.645	616	1,096	17 98	9 56	1,109,524
Pennsylvania.	208	4,528,925	44,162	3,152,530	3,564	4,099	17 85	9 91	5,322,262
Delaware	12	460,100	4,730	312,068	413	425	15 81	11 56	538,439
Maryland.....	24	2,236,000	23,325	1,165,579	1,008	2,014	15 42	9 48	2,120,504
Virginia.......	27	1,908,900	17,785	828,375	1,275	1,688	10 18	6 98	1,486,384
N. Carolina...	28	1,058,800	13,617	531,903	442	1,177	11 65	6 13	831,342
S. Carolina...	18	857,200	9,929	295,971	399	620	13 94	8 30	748,338
Georgia......	35	1,736,156	20,230	900,419	873	1,399	14 57	7 39	2,135,044
Florida.......	—	80,000	600	30,000	28	67	32 14	5 00	49,920
Alabama......	12	651,900	5,208	237,081	346	369	11 71	7 98	382,260
Mississippi...	2	38,000	430	21,500	19	17	14 21	5 94	30,500
Louisiana....	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—
Texas........	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—
Arkansas.....	3	16,500	170	8,975	13	18	14 61	5 88	16,637
Tennessee. .	33	669,600	6,411	297,500	310	581	10 94	6 42	510,624
Kentucky. ...	8	239,000	3,760	180,907	161	221	14 95	9 36	273,439
Ohio..........	8	297,000	4,270	237,060	132	269	16 59	9 42	394,700
Michigan.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—
Indiana......	2	43,000	675	28,220	38	57	13 02	6 77	44,200
Illinois.......	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—
Missouri.....	2	102,000	2,160	86,446	75	80	10 03	10 00	142,900
Iowa.........	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—
Wisconsin...	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—
California....	—	—	—	—	—	—	— —	— —	—
Dis. Columbia	1	85,000	960	67,600	41	103	14 02	8 00	100,000
Total.......	1,094	$74,501,031	641,240	$34,835,056	33,150	59,136	— —	— —	$61,869,184

The New-England establishments are conducted upon a similar principle to the largest cotton factories of Great Britain, and spinning and manufacturing are carried on as one concern. This, however, is not the characteristic of the mills in the above States, as they are, in many instances, employed in spinning only, and in Pennsylvania, Georgia, and Tennessee, yarns are produced chiefly for the purposes of domestic manufacture by hand, which still obtains in many parts of the older States of the Union. Thus, while in Pennsylvania the capital invested amounts but to about one-seventh of that of Massachusetts, the quantity of cotton consumed is one-fifth, the value of the raw material not quite one-fourth, the number of operatives (male and female) one-fourth, the value rather more than one-fourth, the number of pounds of yarn spun and sold as yarn is above thirty times greater in Pennsylvania than in Massachusetts. This, to a certain extent, gives a key to the difference in the modes of manufacture in the two States, and illustrates the distinction already alluded to. There can be no doubt, however, that domestic weaving is gradually giving way, and those manufacturers, especially in Pennsylvania, who formerly did a prosperous business as spinners only, now find that the Eastern States supply the piece goods at a rate so little above the cost of the yarn, that it is not worth the while of the farmer to continue this primitive custom of weaving his own cloth. Thus, the domestic loom is fast following the spinning wheel of the early settlers, and those manufacturers who until recently have spun yarn only are gradully introducing the power-loom as the only means of sustaining their position in the market. This was illustrated by a visit to the Eagle Cotton Mill, Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. Formerly the proprietors spun yarn alone, and did a successful trade; but, by a return with which they favored us, I find, that in six establishments under their direction, they had introduced already 540 looms to the 26,000 spindles, and were manufacturing sheetings at the rate of 6,000,000 yards per annum, together with twilled cotton bags, batting, and yarns, from 5's to 18's; and this, in order to make the latter pay by consuming the surplus yarns themselves. In the Penn. Cotton Mill, Pittsburg, the more modern system had become the rule of the establishment, and with 7,000 spindles and 207 looms, 2,730,000 yards of shirtings were produced annually, besides 240,000 lb. weight of colored yarns for carpet warps and cotton rope.

At two establishments at Richmond, Virginia, the consumption of the yarn, in the manufacture of piece goods, was also the rule; and this being the extent of our journey southward, it became a matter of interest to inquire as to the progress of the cotton manufacture in the cotton-growing States. Georgia, Tennessee and North Carolina were quoted as those in which the greatest progress had been made; while Virginia, South Carolina and Alabama were the next. In Tennessee spinning would appear to be the rule, and manufacturing the exception. In Georgia and North Carolina equal attention is paid to both; while in Virginia, South Carolina and Alabama the manufacture of piece goods is decidedly more extensively carried on than spinning only. Slave labor is said to be largely used, with free whites as overseers and instructors.

In the two establishments above named free white labor alone is employed. The males are heads of departments, machinists, dressers, &c., and the females are spinners and weavers. The latter are chiefly adults, though children from twelve to fifteen are employed. The average hours of work here are twelve, but vary a little with the season; very full time being the rule. At least such is the statement of the manager of the James River Company's Mill. This establishment, as also the Manchester Cotton Company's Mill, is at Manchester, Chesterfield County, Virginia, and situated opposite to Richmond, on the James River, from the falls on which the water power used for driving the machinery is derived. The James River Mill produces a large weight of work for the extent of its machinery. The goods manufactured are coarse cottons, and average about 2½ yards to the pound; shirtings, 28 inches wide (osnaburgs), summer pantaloons for slaves, and bagging for export to the Brazils for sugar bags, running about three yards to the pound. Bagging of a lighter character, for grain, and 36 inch osnaburgs, two yards to the pound, are also produced. The Manchester Company manufacture sheetings, shirtings, and yarns, and employ about 325 operatives, the children being of the same average age as at the James

River Mill. The manager, Mr. Whitehead, is an Englishman, as is also the chief mechanic. The former has just perfected a patent "speeder," of which the latter expressed a very high opinion. Its advantages are a greater speed, a more even roving, and a bobbing of any desirable size, which never becomes spongy in the winding.

The small development of the cotton manufacture in the States of Indiana, Mississippi, and Arkansas, or even those of Ohio and Kentucky, required no special inquiry. In Maryland, however, there were twenty-four establishments in 1850, chiefly engaged in manufacturing piece goods, such as drillings, sheetings, ducks, osnaburgs, and bagging. The yarns produced for domestic purposes bear but a small proportion to those manufactured into cloth, and these are chiefly sold within the State for the home weaving of mixed fabrics of wool and cotton, forming coarse lindseys. The wool is mostly spun by hand in the farm-houses, and the fabrics, when made, are entirely for domestic use. In Maryland, too, bleaching is carried on to a considerable extent.

Having thus endeavored to illustrate the position of the cotton manufacture in the form in which it has developed itself in the South, and so far as circumstances would permit of an inquiry, in the Middle States, bordering on the West, the manufacturing system, as manifested in the cotton trade of New-England, demands consideration. If the illustrations given show the early progress and position of this manufacture in the United States, so far as daily recurring improvements and ever increasing wants have permitted it to remain in its original form, the manufacturing towns of Lowell, Manchester, and Lawrence strikingly demonstrate the results of the energy and enterprise of the manufacturers of New-England.

At Lowell, Massachusetts, the cotton manufacture has been developed in a form which has been a theme for many writers on the economy and social bearings of the factory system; and the plans so successfully put into operation here, and carried on since 1822, have led to the erection of large establishments, with their attendant boarding houses, at Manchester, New-Hampshire, and, more recently, at Lawrence, Massachusetts; whilst a commencement has been made at Holyoke, in the same State, by the Hadley Falls Co., which promises a result of a more extraordinary character than anything yet achieved in the United States. Each of these localities present features peculiar to themselves, and, besides the manufacture of cotton goods, other branches of production in textile fabrics are carried on.

The falls of the Pawtucket on the Merrimack River and the Pawtucket Canal, which had previously been used only for the purposes of navigation, and connecting the river above and below the falls by means of locks, presented to the original projectors of Lowell a site for the solution of an important problem, not only in American industry, but, to a great extent, in that of Europe itself. This was the combination of great natural advantages with a large and well-directed capital, resulting in extensive and systematic operations for the realization of a legitimate profit, while the social position of the operative classes was sedulously cared for, and their moral and intellectual elevation promoted and secured. The example has not been lost, even in Europe, and the possibilities of the manufacturing system of a country being carried on without deterioration, but, on the contrary, to the consolidation and promotion of the best interests of the laboring classes, having been so unmistakably proved, many improvements in the larger manufactories of England, not only of those engaged in the manufacture of cotton, but in other branches of industry, have resulted from the enlightened and profitable system commenced barely 30 years ago by the founders of Lowell, which is now a city containing nearly 35,000 inhabitants.

In that place there are eight manufacturing corporations exclusively employed in the manufacture of cotton goods, two of which print and dye their own fabrics, and one company (Lowell Manufacturing Company) which manufactures cotton osnaburgs in addition to its staple production of carpets. There are 35 mills, besides the printworks above named, belonging to these companies. These produce 2,139,000 yards of piece goods per week, consisting chiefly of sheetings, shirtings, drillings, and printing cloths, varying in quality from No. 13 to No. 40. The greater portion, however, are No. 14's and No. 13's. The consumption of cotton is 745,000 lb. per week, spun and manufactured upon 320,732 spindles and 9,954 looms. The average per spindle is 1¼ yard per day, the medium produce of a loom being, in 14's, 45 yards, and 30's, 33 yards per day. The number of operatives employed in the cotton manufacture by the eight corporations exclusively engaged therein is 6,920 females and 2,338 males. This, however, does not include those employed by the Lowell Manufacturing Company in their cotton mills, as the returns only show the gross number of hands engaged in the cotton, carpet, and other departments of that establishment. The average wages of females, clear of board, is $2, or about 9s. 6d. sterling, per week, whilst the wages of males show an average of $4.80, or about £1 2s. sterling per week. The average hours of labor per day, exclusive of meals, is 12, the mills commencing at 5 A.M. and closing at 7 P.M.

Of the quality of the goods produced, it will be sufficient to say, that they are generally excellent of their class; and quite equal, sometimes superior, to similar manufactured in Britain. Those of Lowell may be taken as fair examples of other cotton mills in the United States, possessing the same advantages as regards power, improved machinery, and intelligent operatives. In spinning, it will be seen that the numbers are low, the finer quality of cotton goods not being produced. The No. 40's "printers" manufactured by the Merrimack Company being the highest class. These, when printed, are of a firm and excellent fabric. The Lowell Manufacturing Company produce a very cheap and well-looking fabric for cotton trowserings at 17½c., or about 9½d. sterling per yard. These are made up of dyed yarns in checks and stripes, and are woven on Gingham looms.

Art. IX.—THE GREAT SOUTHERN CONVENTION IN CHARLESTON.

We regret that our limited space will exclude, from the present number of the Review, the full proceedings of the Convention lately held in Charleston, representing nearly all of the Southern and Western States. The session lasted for six days, and was marked by the utmost harmony. Business of the greatest importance was discussed and transacted, and there can be no doubt that the influence of the Convention will be long and beneficially felt.

The following is the list of delegates attending the Convention. It is well to preserve the names of public-spirited citizens who are willing, at personal expense and inconvenience, to lend their aid to these movements:—

Maryland.—Rev. Dr. G. W. Burnap, Wm. Crichton, Joshua Jones, Thos. T. Hutchins, J. Pike, J. M. Kellogg, C. C. Baldwin, Charles C. Fulton, Gen. Tench Tilghman, Thos. R. Appold, Marcus Dennison, C. F. Montague, William P. Smith, Marcus Dennison, Charles P. Montague, William H. Welsh, George Bartlett, Dr. Wm. H. Clendinen, Alonzo Lilly, Thomas Whitridge, John F. Dent, Wm. N. Harrison.

Virginia.—Thomas M. Crowder, Thos. J. Cormick, Jas. McDowell, C. Hall, C. A. Grice, Hott Wilson, Saml. Marsh, Jos. R. Spratteryy, A. M. Cunningham, Wm. Ward, Thos. Wallace, G. W. Bolling, A. F. Crutchfield, Thos. Branch, W. A. Bragg, Saml. Stevens, A. M. Keily, Jno. T. Robertson, Robert Leslie, Hugh Nelson, H. B. Reardon, John Dorman, R. M. Balls, Chas. Ramsay, J. J. Moore, Wm. B. Ferguson, George Bramble, Hunter Woodise, O. G. Clay, S. D. Whittle, P. W. Hinton, Jno. E. Lemoine, Denter Otey, Wm. F. Gordon, Wm. L. Sanders. F. M. Dunnington, Lieut. Gov. S. F. Leake, Jas. Winslow, H. W. Fry, John L. Tate, W. S. Beers, Geo. Whitefield, Geo. W. Grice, W. H. H. Hodges, Wm. Collins, J. C. White, M. Myers, W. H. Tappey, C. W. Murdough, A. Alex. Little, R. O. Britton, R. H. McIlwaine, J. H. Cooper, D. G. Potts, John Rowlette, James McIlwaine, George W. Peete, Thomas Brooks, John B. Davis, Charles Morgan, Saml. F. Adden, Ed. Ruffin, Thos. B. Rowland, W. J. Doyle, Wm. Gouldin, Rich. C. Morris, C. B. White, Jno. G. H. Hatton, Jno. G. Hatton, Wm. D. Roberts, Jr., Wm. H. Marginhul, Geo. W. Perkins, G. W. Latham, Chas. A. Rose, J. R. Anderson, J. K. Branch, Thos. J. Kirkpatrick, J. McIlwaine. J. B. Barry, J. H. Boram, W. L. Peters, John H. Cook, Jas. Lyons, P. H. Aylett, J. B. Branham, Jas. Y. Leigh, John L. Cochran, J. Preston White, C. T. Friend, R. A. Talley, Jno. F. Tanner, Henry C. Cabell, Henry Exall, Geo. W. Chulter, P. Claiborne Gooche, Wm. P. Stewart, W. T. Harrison, J. R. Small, John S. Lovett, A. L. Hill, Wm. Ward, Samuel R. Borum, Col. M. Cook, W. H. Macfarland, S. T. Peters, Robert C. Stanard, E. C. Robinson, M. Cooke.

Georgia.—Robert A. White, J. R. Fulmon, E. L. R. Anthony, A. J. Brady, Holmes Steele, J. W. Duncan, T. T. Windsor, W. S. Cothran, J. W. M. Berrien, D. S. Printup, W. J. Lawton, Geo. M. Lawton, E. A. Nesbit, Rich. F. Davis, Danl. Slade, J. Norcross, J. R. Travis, Geo. W. Young, Jno. S. Rowland, Benj. Brantley, B. F. Brantley, Jr., Wm. Gibson, Wm. S. Heronton, Dr. J. S. Whitten, J. H. Furman, A. P. Allgood, Saml. McWhorter, L. H. Briscoe, W. D. Nowell, G. S. Black, Abda Johnson, G. L. Upshaw, J. A. Erwin, W. R. Erwin, Jas. M. Veach, Isaac M. Kennedy, Geo. R. Edwards, Samuel T. Beacher, P. M. Covington, A. J. Butts, J. S. Thomas, L. D. Brockner, C. G. Campbell, M. Huson, R. A. McConnelly, E. H. Pottle, E. L. Strohecker, D. G. Wild, Thomas D. Wright, Saml. G. Horsey, Thos. A. Burke, Nelson Tift, J. L. Dunham, M. S. Cohen, J. S. Linton, Wm. M. Morton, W. L. Mitchell, P. W. Alexander, J. H. Sheppard, Wm. C. Dawson, John M. Tucker, John G. Thomas, J. Hamilton, Hiram Roberts, R. D. Walker, John C. Ruse, S. W. Lee, Thos. G. Vimmes, J. J. Collier, A. H. Stokes, W. T. Shannon, Jos. L. Brown, F. C. Fuller, J. R. Parrott, Wm. Perry, Stephen Thomas, J. J. Thomas, J. L. Morton, J. C. Neville, Mark Johnston, R. M. Johnston, G. O. Dawson, O. B. Daniel, J. H. Nesbit, L. N. Whittle, J. Quin, R. J. Moses, T. R. Ripley, J. J. Neely, Dr. H. F. Hill, J. J. Kelly, R. Bradley, S. B. Robson, Wm. Sisson, Jno. Dunwoody, R. J. Dawton, J. Sibley, J. L. Calhoun, R. P. Zummerman, Young L. Harris, Thos. B. Carleton, D. H. Sanders, Asbury Hull, A. B. Dulin, B. A. W. Puckett, Ely Price, M. B. Hilton, G. T. Dortie, A. A. Cleveland, M. D. Huson, D. T. Wilson, A. B. Sharp.

Florida.—Benj. F. Whitner, J. B. Brown, W. D. Mosely, S. Glinskey, C. A. Price, B. E. Cann, B. A. Putnam, J. W. Bryant.

Alabama.—Jno. T. Tanner, E. R. Wallace, A. Honk, Geo. W. Neal, Geo. P. Keyes, D. Coleman, H. L. Clay, N. J. Scott, Jno. W. Jones, J. B. Bradford, Chas. H. Patton, C. C. Clay, J. Withers Clay, N. Lockett, W. D. Hollowell, J. G. L. Huey, G. W. Scruggs, S. M. Chapman, W. S. Burr, N. R. King, J. J. Fackler, J. F. Steele, R. S. Chapman, Wm. Knox, J. P. Dotch.

Mississippi.—J. W. Clapp, Andrew Mathews, T. A. Iredell, C. K. Marshall, N. D. Coleman, R. H. Crump, T. A. Marshall.

Kentucky.—Leslie Coombs, A. L. Shotwell, T. S. Kennedy, W. H. Standerford, B. D. P. Standerford, John Funk, E. Hutchins, Frank Roulhac.

Tennessee.—James Ross, A. A. Kyle, J. W. Rogans, J. M. Gibbon, C. S. King, Jno. W. Brown, M. W. Nelson, H. M. Fulsome, D. K. Young, Samuel P. Allison, M. Hillsman, R. N. Gillespie, A. P. Caldwell, Wm. C. Peck, L. S. Barnett, E. McGuire, Henry Rice, D. W. Ballon, J. Forrest, A. Hutsell, John H. Baptist, R. C. Russ, W. H. Ballan, B. H. Brown, H. B. Yearwood, Jno. R. Eakin, J. T. Armstrong, W. S. Huggins, J. H. Brinkley, William D. Ferguson, S. J. D. Armond, G. W. Parks, R. D. Duncan, J. R. Armstrong, John A. Campbell, W. B. Harding, Daniel Manley, A. G. Henderson, William P. Reeves, William Houston, J. W. M. Overton, T. G. Jones, D. P. Braden, William E. West, J. H. Reagan, S. D. Mitchell, Mitchell Rose, J. P. Gaylon, R. P. Mitchell, D. M. Leatherman, John M. Coffin, James A. Coffin, H. K. Walker, H. L. Claiborne, J. W. F. Manning, W. C. Kyle, John Leiper, L. W. Reeves, A. W. Nelson, H. M. Clements, J. W. Newman, Ralfe S. Saunders, John S. Moffett, J. H. Donelson, John Stanfield, T. J. Campbell, A. Cheatham, J. H. McMahan, S. P. Bankhead, John Frizzle, Alex. Bell, R. K. Hicks, W. P. Matthews, D. D. Holman, John W. Gorham, W. H. Snead, James C. Sutteral, John A. M. Campbell, James K. Simpson, Wm. P. S. Magors, Samuel W. Morgan, W. D. Neal, D. Lewis, Jno. S. Burch, Jno. Davidson, A. R. Heron, H. L. Douglass, Thomas W. Wisdom, M. E. Wilcox, D. Campbell, Mat. Allison, J. E. R. Ray, R. S. Dill, H. Robertson, S. Pride, W. F. Bradford, Wm. G. McAdoo, S. Pipkin, C. H. Coffin, Hugh Francis, B. Templeton, J. D. Goodpasture, J. Knox Walker, John Shelby, J. A. D. Taylor, A. E. Jackson, D. W. Carter, W. L. B. Laurence, T. M. Patterson, Charles Metcalf, C. W. Metcalf, A. M. Hopkins, John P. Campbell, James C. Jones, F. M. Grayson, B. R. Strong, M. W. Williams, E. H. Porter, Eugene Underwood, John A. Gardner, B. B. Trousdale, Jno. R. Wilson, R. L. Weakley, E. S. Hawkins, G. B. Black, J. R. McCallahan, J. W. McHenry, W. J. Crandale, E. Strode, F. M. Parham, Wm. Lenoir, D. P. Henley, Jos. Jackson, G. J. Jackson, John Jarnigan, W. W. Walker, C. G. Crozier, Lewis Rector, J. H. Thompson, A. L. Stamps, Alex. R. Wiggs, J. Howard, Thomas G. Wood, J. Q. Weatherford, F. B. Brevard, John H. Wood, S. M. Patton, A. W. Hickman, Carlos Dimick, Jas. D. Maney, D. G. Rumsey, Jno. W. Burton, Charles E. Ready, Wm. H. Polk, E. A. Raworth, Anson Nelson, P. W. Maxey, Nathan'l Baxter, G. P. Smith, J. H. Smith, Wm. Estill, Hugh Douglass, E. E. Griffith, W. L. Eakin, Geo. Brown, J. B. Lamb, T. S. Ayres, Jno. W. Baker, D. B. Turner, Samuel P. Walker, R. M. Boyers, Samuel Tate, E. J. Wood, J. C. Carlock, P. T. Burts, J. W. McHenry, W. H. Bates, W. G. Brownlow, P. Gosling, W. B. Dashiell, W. H. Lucas, Charles J. Hester, J. T. Shanks, James L.

Patton, G. W. Smith, F. A. Parham, *Chattanooga Gazette* : W. Irving Crandall, *Chattanooga Advertiser* : E. Strode, Mr. —— Bates, Jno. C. Burch.

***Louisiana.*—John B. Leefe, D. J. Hooks, J. W. P. McGimsey, S. W. Oakley, J. Alex. Baggatt.**

***North Carolina.*—J. H. Gibbon, John Winslow, H. B. Williams, L. S. Williams, T. H. Brem, W. W. Ellery, J. A. Young, L. Gibbon, T. Loring, J. T. Miller, A. H. Van Brokkelen, E. D. Hale, W. L. Long, T. B. Burton, R. Barringer, F. S. Wittington, A. J. De Rossett, Jr., P. K. Dickinson, W. W. Lane, G. Potter, C. P. Mendenhall, James T. Miller, J. F. Hale, D. G. MacRae, Thomas J. Holton, John Eccles, James A. Patton, H. Nutt, M. Cronly, W. C. B. ———, L. J. Dortch, John J. Long, Wm. A. Daniel, N. M. Long, James Simmons, J. H. Davis, E. J. Fox.**

***Missouri.*—James M. Clendenen, W. G. Blackwood.**

***Arkansas.*—Albert Pike.**

***South Carolina.*—H. W. Conner, James Bowie, A. F. Browning, P. M. Cohen, W. C. Courtney, Joshua Lazarus, Thomas C. Evans, C. J. Colcock, James H. Nichols, H. C. Markley, T. E. Powe, Charles H. Allen, A. Hurbemont, W. H. D. Gaillard, John T. Sloan, William E. Martin, A. H. Davega, A. P. Hayne, Sr., Lewis Rebb, H. Hutchinson, Andrew Simonds, William H. Trescott, B. W. Force, B. G. Wilkins, H. Judge Moore, Henry Ewbank, W. L. J. Reid, A. Price, C. Froneburger, John McKee, James H. Taylor, Jacob Bond Ion, Andrew Milne, C. Y. Richardson, A. Simpkins, Elbert Bland, William M. Lawton, J. J. McCarter, F. J. Porcher, Charles Miott, Jr., J. D. Allen, B. F. Brown, Samuel W. Milton, G. N. Reynolds, Jr., James R. Breare, W. L. T. Prince, E. J. Waddell, N. R. Eaves, J. R. Haynesworth, J. S. Chambers, W. B. Johnson, D. Matherson, E. W. Charles, J. F. Hay, R. A. Gantt, Edward Gantt, C. B. Stone, R. P. Gantt, S. W. Trotte, John Cunningham, C. Matheson, J. W. Ross, Lewis M. Ayer, James Graham, L. W. Spratt, Leonard Towers, F. G. Thomas, B. H. Rice, Giles Sharp, Philip Dunn, Thomas McNally, Joseph Fant, John L. Young, D. G. Colt, A. C. Brawley, J. A. Ready, John C. Hope, Alex. McBee, William Irwin, Wm. P. McBee, William M. Thomas, John H. Evins, C. W. Styles, J. W. Caldwell, L. E. Stubbs, A. M. Kennedy, J. R. Logan, P. E. Duncan, Thomas J. Eccles, James P. Carroll, George A. Addison, B. Waldo, S. S. Tompkins, W. P. Butler, Thomas G. Key, A. Stillwell, J. Foster Marshall, W. F. Pratt, T. W. Wingo, William Gregg, R. B. Rhett, William C. Bee, William Whaley, Wm. B. Heriott, H. S. Hayden, E. H. Rodgers, P. H. Hammarskold, E. W. Bonney, S. Langley, J. A. Billinger, D. Wyatt Aikin, R. B. Boylston, Charles Kerrison, Fleetwood Lanneau, Otis Mills, B. W. Bradley, E. J. Henry, John V. Moore, W. D. Porter, Jno. Fountain, L. C. Haskell, J. S. Cothran, P. A. Bacot, Richard Yeadon, J. N. Avery, A. Q. Dunovant, J. M. Allen, W. B. Stanley, Ewd. Hope, O. Z. Bates, Andw. Wallace, James M. Wilson, F. F. Brattie, H. Nelson Wheaton, H. H. Williams, W. G. De Saussure, B. F. Perry, G. A. Addison, J. P. Carroll, J. P. Key, S. S. Thompkins, T. P. Magrath, L. Jones, W. P. Butler, E. Bland, T. Farr Capers, E. P. Starr, Geo. W. Moye, J. Allen Brown, E. W. Edgerton, Jos. Walker, T. J. Bell, A. G. Goodwin, Wm. Barkaloo, L. A. Frampton, P. S. Bacot, Thos. Steen, A. P. Aldrich, Jas. Chesnut, Jr., A. H. Boykin, William M. Porcher, P. C. Gaillard, Daniel Ravenel, Theo. Stoney, James L. Clarke, A. G. Rose, T. L. Hutchinson, G. A. Trenholm, W. W. McLeod, T. S. Pagin, C. V. Chamberlain, Geo. H. Duffus, Motte Pringle, Jno. Heart, Motte A. Pringle, Geo. S. Bryan, Wm. M. Tunno, D. A. Ambler, J. G. Guignard, Jno. L. Young, S. P. Ravenel, R. Cunningham, Geo. McClenaghan, W. H. Houston, A. G. Magrath, M. C. Mordecai, C. G. Memminger, W. Y. Paxton, W. B. Pringle, M. McK. Parker, W. H. Cannon, C. M. Furman, A. P. Gaillard, James S. Gibbes, B. C. Pressley, J. W. W. Marshall, J. J. Pope, Jr., A. R. Taft, T. G. Simmons, Jr., R. G. Stone, Wm. Brisbane, Wm. Ravenel, Henry Gourdin, Samuel Henry Dickson, George M. Coffin, Wm. Elliott, H. P. Dougall, G. W. Muse, S. Bamberg, Wm. Miley, J. Keith, Geo. H. Ingraham, Thos. L. Wragg, E. B. Bell, J. J. Hailey, C. F. Tobin, F. J. De Hay, W. T. Rivers, Lewis Jones, H. H. Clarke, B. A. Coachman, G. F. B. Leighton, W. C. Miller, J. R. Witherspoon, G. D. Mims, P. A. Raysor, Johnson Hagood, T. Y. Simmons, M. D., J. J. Ryan, J. J. Depass, M. C. Workman, M. C. M. Hammond, John Bryce, E. M. Anderson, William H. Grice, Jas. Patterson, J. G. N. Duncan, J. J. Bunnon, W. P. Duncan, W. S. Wood, H. S. King, D. J. McKinne, S. M. Johnson, W. W. Durant, J. H. Adams, Thos. Y. Simmons, J. J. Ryan, J. S. De Pass, W. C. Workman, M. C. M. Hammond, John Boyce, E. M. Anderson, W. H. Grice, Wm. T. Ellerbe, Alex. McLeod, A. Malloy, E. B. C. Cash, O. M. Roberts, J. G. McKissack, John B. Moore, H. Williamson, T. M. Eason, J. J. Brown, I. S. Cohen, J. M. Caldwell, E. Killian, T. A. Dargan, J. D. Wilson, Rice Dulin, B. J. Johnson, J. N. Cochran, E. Alexander, P. M. Connor, S. J. Bailey, B. Z. Herndon, A. McB. Cunningham, W. D. Steele, J. Buchanan, W. R. Robertson, David Gaillard, E. G. Palmer, W. C. Moragne, John Adger, Edmund Rhett, W. J. Kennedy, E. E. Evans, J. H. Pauley, W. McCall, C. A. Dargan, H. Saunders, W. E. Muse, W. M. Burt, Lod. Hill, O. Woodward, W. S. Rabb, J. R. Aiken, E. A. Hodges, Samuel Sparks, J. J. Harlee, A. Blue; James Lynch, H. W. Harrington, G. S. Douglass, L. A. Beekham, W. E. Simmons, J. G. Crane, G. W. Black, J. C. C. Ebberle, Jno. H. Evans, W. J. Neville, A. B. Grant, S. McCully, I. B. Watson, O. J. Chaffee, H. E. Vincent, Robert Bryce, D. L. Thompson, D. R. Barton, H. A. Kendrick, Jas. Macbeth, Geo. B. Locke, Thos. Bennett, Henry Lyons, T. H. Spann, R. F. W. Allston, R. L. Lewis, E. L. Adams, J. P. Neibuhr, A. McDowell, W. F. Colcock, A. B. Wardlaw, T. O. Elliott, J. Townsend, W. W. Fogitei, C. D. Bobo, F. T. Nethers, N. Philips, S. G. Dunbar, J. G. McDonald, W. M. Shannon, J. B. Kershaw, W. H. R. Workman, G. W. Connor, F. W. Connor, C. S. Walker, H. W. Harrington, J. S. Daniels, Wm. Gregg, Jr., J. H. Witherspoon, Hugh Wilson, W. T. Caston, J. D. Ashmore, J. H. Felder, J. J. McClure, W. B. Johnston, D. G. Peoples, H. D. De Saussure, J. S. Preston, Lewis Jones, H. H. Clarke, B. A. Coachman, G. F. B. Leighton, W. C. Miller, Murray Robinson, Jno. S. Ashe, Chas. Warley.**

The following officers were elected :—

FOR PRESIDENT,

Hon. W. C. Dawson, of *Georgia*.

VICE-PRESIDENTS,

Lieut. M. F. Maury.
Sheldon F. Leake, *Virginia*.
Gen. J. Winslow, *North Carolina*.
Hon. J. A. Woodward, *South Carolina*.
Judge E. A. Nisbet, *Georgia*.
Hon. C. C. Clay, Sr., *Alabama*.
S. W. Oakey, *Louisiana*.
N. D. Coleman, *Mississippi*.

Dr. Jno. Shelby, *Tennessee.*
Gen. Leslie Combs, *Kentucky.*
Thos. Whitredge, *Missouri.*
W. D. Moseley, *Florida.*

SECRETARIES.

W. G. De Saussure.
C. J. Rose, *Virginia.*
Thomas Loring, *North Carolina.*

A. P. Aldrich, *South Carolina.*
James Hamilton, *Georgia.*
George W. Jones, *Alabama.*
J. B. Leefe, *Louisiana.*
—— Matthews, *Mississippi.*
R. S. Saunders, *Tennessee.*
Thomas P. Hutchins, *Maryland.*
C. A. Price, *Florida.*

The Committee on Business consisted of:—

Maryland.—Wm. Creighton, Geo. Bartlett, Joshua Jones.
Virginia.—Jas. Lyons, Myer Myers, Oden G. Clay.
North Carolina.—Dr. J. H. Gibbon, P. K. Dickinson, A. J. DeRosset, Jr.
South Carolina.—Jas. Chesnut, Jr., C. G. Memminger, H. Gourdin.
Georgia.—Nelson Tift, E. A. Nisbet, Hiram Roberts.
Florida.—Benj. F. Whitner, J. B. Brown, Stanislaus Grimske.
Alabama.—Daniel Coleman, N. J. Scott, N. Lockett.
Louisiana.—Samuel W. Oakey, David J. Hook Jno. B. Leefe.
Mississippi.—J. W. Clapp, T. A. Marshall, R. A. Crump.
Tennessee.—W. H. Polk, J. Knox Walker, Gen. W. C. Ryle.
Texas.—Mr. Ray.
Kentucky.—Gen. Leslie Combs, Lieut. M. F. Maury.

The final resolutions adopted by the Convention are the only portions of the proceedings which we can give at present. Having published the detailed action of every similar Convention held in the South or West for the last eight years, it is our intention to do the same for this in the next number of the REVIEW.

MANUFACTURING AND MINING.

1st. *Resolved,* That whilst agriculture is, and properly should be, the predominant pursuit of the people of the States represented in this Convention, the interests of these States would be very greatly promoted by the employment of capital in other pursuits, and especially in manufactures and mining; that the abundance and cheapness of the means of subsistence, of fuel and water power, the temperature of the climate, and other natural advantages, will, if properly improved, secure to these States a virtual monopoly of the manufacture as well as the growth of cotton; that it is believed the present cost of transporting this staple abroad, will more than cover the expense of manufacturing it at home; and that, as an investment, for security, for certainty of result and uniformity of income, the factory and the mine, when properly managed, have no superior.

2d. *Resolved,* That a committee of three from each State represented in the Convention be appointed by the Convention, for the purpose of obtaining the most reliable statistical information as to the number and location of manufactories and mines in the States represented in this body; the amount of capital invested in the several establishments; the amount of income and disbursements; the number of hands (operatives) employed, free and slave, and amount of raw material consumed; the quantity and quality of the manufactured articles produced; the prices at which they are furnished; the markets in which they are chiefly sold; and other items of information, tending to show the present condition and extent of our manufacturing interest: and that said Committee furnish to the Secretary of the Convention a report of their investigations, to be laid by him before the next meeting of the Convention; and that it be the duty of said Committee to address the people of the States represented in this Convention, and to urge the importance of action in the Legislatures thereof in favor of education, of manufactures, of ship building, of direct trade, and of mining; and that it be the duty of the Committee to collect and present at the next meeting of the Convention statistics and other useful information relating to the internal improvements of the several States—their industrial resources, their mineral treasures, their manufacturing facilities, and their capacities for trade and commerce; together with a statement in which shall be set forth the names and lengths of the several railways, their cost, and the increased value which has been imparted to lands and other property in consequence of such improvements.

3d. *Resolved*, That the Committee appointed by the second resolution of the Report of the General Committee, to prepare statistics, &c., be also instructed to obtain and report to the Secretary, the statistics on the subject of milling and the lumber trade, as carried on by the respective States represented in this body, as well also as the statistics of agriculture in the same States.

4th. *Resolved*, That a Committee of three from each State represented in this Convention be appointed to consider and report upon the propriety and expediency of adopting some plan for promoting Southern and Western manufactures and mining operations.

PACIFIC RAILROAD.

1. *Resolved*, That it is vitally important to the progress and prosperity of the United States, to have one or more railroads connecting the States on the Atlantic with those on the Pacific Ocean.

2. *Resolved*, That the Southern route ought to commence at suitable points on the Mississippi River between New-Orleans and St. Louis, thus connecting itself with the various similar improvements made and contemplated in the Atlantic States, and concentrating at some point in Texas on or near the thirty-second parallel of north latitude—thence to the Rio Grande, on the Western border of Texas, by the route designated by that State at the last session of her Legislature, chartering the Mississippi, El Paso and Pacific Railroad, and thence to the Pacific Ocean or Gulf of California.

3. *Resolved*, That in order to make provision for the construction of said road, this Convention respectfully recommend that a Southern organization be effected, if practicable, of the States of Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Missouri, Tennessee, Kentucky, and of the different cities, and the railroad companies and corporations in those States, for the purpose of building a Southern railroad to the Pacific Ocean or Gulf of California, by the route and from one or more of the points indicated in the second of these resolutions—negotiating for the right of way, if necessary, with the Government of Mexico.

4. *Resolved*, That to effect this organization, this Convention respectfully advises the incorporation, by the Legislature of the State of Virginia, of a Southern Pacific Railroad Company with a capital sufficient to build such road from the point or points and by the route indicated in the second resolution—of which corporation the several Southern States above mentioned, the several cities therein, and the several railroad companies therein, shall be invited to be corporators, together with such other companies and individuals as may choose to subscribe for stock, including, if they desire it, the Cherokee, Choctaw, and Creek nations of Indians, west of the Mississippi. That said States be invited to take stock in such corporation to the amount of not less than two millions of dollars each, to be

raised and secured in such manner as the Legislature of each such State shall direct. That each of said cities and railroad companies be invited to subscribe for stock to such amount as its means will admit. That the existence of said corporation be recognized by each of said States, and such powers be vested in, and such franchises and capacities granted to it by the Legislature of each such State, as may be necessary to effect the object of the organization; and that, in its Directory, each such State be equally represented.

5. *Resolved*, That this Convention respectfully recommends that, if necessary, special sessions of the Legislatures of such States be called, for the purpose of taking into consideration this plan; and that a committee of one member from each State represented in this Convention, be appointed to draft a charter of incorporation for such company, and lay the same before the Governors of the said several States, and the National or General Councils of the Cherokee, Creek, and Choctaw nations, requesting each of said Governors to convene the Legislature of his State, in order to consider the same, and take such other steps in regard to such road as may be necessary and proper, if, in his opinion, it should be expedient to do so; and especially praying the Governor of Virginia to lay said draft of a charter before the Legislature of that State, with his views in regard thereto; and requesting said Councils of the Cherokees, Choctaws, and Creeks, to act therein, to recognize such company, grant rights of way through their national lands for any branch or branches of said road that may pass through the same, and enact such other laws as shall secure to the South, so far as may be in their power, the exclusive benefits and advantages of the commerce of the Pacific, and of the wealthy provinces of Mexico intended to be traversed by said road.

6. *Resolved*, That this Convention recommend that power be given to said Corporation, by its charter, to negotiate with Mexico for, and purchase, if necessary, a right of way through her territory to the Pacific Ocean, or to some point on the Gulf of California; to stipulate with that government, that in the event the same is granted, no higher rates or charges shall ever be imposed or exacted for passage or transportation over said road on citizens of Mexico than on those of the United States; and to agree that the Company will maintain military posts along said road; will in all time submit to the jurisdiction and laws of Mexico, and claim no political rights, nor attempt to colonize the country.

7. *Resolved*, That in the opinion of this Convention, the Southern States, corporations and people, are entirely able to build said road, and that no time should be lost in doing so; that it is as easy to commence it now as ten or twenty years hence, and it can as easily be completed in ten years as in a century; and that it is the duty of every Southern man, to himself, to his children, and his country, to engage earnestly in this great and indispensable measure of security, as well as of wealth, and of political and commercial power to the South.

8. *Resolved*, That California be invited to unite in this organization.

RAILROADS.

Resolved, That railroads connecting Southern, Atlantic, and Gulf ports, and radiating from them to any part of the South and Southwestern interior, should be promoted by any means in our power, whether by individuals, by city corporations, or by State credits properly grounded; being, in our opinion, the most safe, economical, and speedy means of developing the agricultural and mineral resources of the States, and supplying the certain basis of profitable export and import trade.

Resolved, That this Convention views with unqualified approbation the great railroad works in progress, and penetrating the Valley of the Mississippi, connecting important points in the Valley of the Mississippi and its tributaries with the seaports of the South Atlantic and Gulf States, and also connecting the Atlantic with the Gulf of Mexico.

Resolved, That the speedy completion of this system of railroads is essential to the full development of the agricultural, mineral, and manufacturing resources of the South, and to the control and direction to her own seaports of the great commerce in her productions that is now carried on through other channels; while, at the same time, it is eminently calculated to draw closer together the bonds of union amongst us, and to perpetuate our social and other institutions.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend, in the most emphatic manner, to the several States in which such works are in progress, to afford all the pecuniary aid essential to the speedy completion of the same, and the accomplishment of the great and patriotic ends for which they were designed.

Resolved, That copies of these resolutions be transmitted by the President of this Convention to the Governors of all the States here represented, to be laid before the several legislatures thereof, and also to the members of Congress from the States here represented.

COINAGE.

Resolved, That a uniformity in the values of the coins of different commercial nations is deemed by this Convention to be an object of much importance, and highly desirable.

2. That the Report of Dr. Cibbon, of the Mint in North Carolina, on that subject, herewith reported, be printed for circulation and more general information, and that he be appointed a committee, on the part of this Convention, to communicate the said Report, with these resolutions, to the proper authorities at Washington, and to request them to take such measures as they may deem best to effect the object.

3. That the Chamber of Commerce of Charleston, and other cities of the United States, be invited to aid the measure by their support.

EDUCATION.

1. That among the measures auxiliary to the important objects we have in view, this Convention cannot but regard as of deep interest and importance the adoption of the proper means for introducing commercial education among the youth of our country, the training them up to habits of business, and thereby establishing a body of merchants whose every interest and feeling shall be identified with the country which has reared and sustained them.

2. That the Convention recommends to the legislatures and citizens of the Southern States, the ample endowment of Universities, Colleges, and other scholastic institutions, for the purpose of extending their advantages and usefulness; and it also respectfully solicits the visitors and Boards of Trustees for such institutions of learning, to discriminate in the election of all professors and other teachers in favor of Southern talent and education.

3. That we recommend the creation, patronage, and encouragement of establishments for the publication and sale in the Southern States of elementary books of education, the production of Southern men, prepared with express reference to the proper education of Southern youth.

Inasmuch as the cause of education is of the first importance amongst growing and enlightened States, and the proper instruction and training of the rising generations in the Southern and Southwestern States demand our especial care and attention, therefore

Resolved, That this Convention looks with peculiar gratification upon the prosperous condition of the several State institutions, and the praiseworthy exertions of the different Christian denominations in the cause of education within the States here represented, and hereby tenders to them its grateful recognition of their momentous work, and the remarkable success which has crowned their toils.

Resolved, That this Convention earnestly recommends all parents and guardians within these States to consider well that, to neglect the claims of their own seminaries and colleges, and patronize and enrich those of remoter States, is fraught with peril to our sacred interests, perpetuating our dependence on those who do not understand and cannot appreciate our necessities and responsibilities, and at the same time fixing a lasting reproach upon our own institutions, teachers, and people.

Resolved, That amongst the most important measures necessary to the success of our educational interests is, the establishment by the Southern and Southwestern States of normal schools for the free admission of such persons, of both sexes, as may wish to devote themselves to the profession of teaching within their bodies; and this Convention respectfully solicits the attention of the governors and legislatures of these States to the importance of this subject.

Resolved, That this Convention respectfully recommends to the legislatures of these States the importance of encouraging the production, by their own citizens, scholars, printers, and publishers, of such school books as may be necessary for elementary and general education, by the offer of suitable prizes for the best books of different classes, to be decided on by appropriate committees appointed to judge of their merits; such books always to be printed and published within the Southern or Southwestern States.

Resolved, That a Special Committee, consisting of Henry A. Griswold, of Louisville, Kentucky; J. J. McCarter, of Charleston, South Carolina; J. B. Steel, of New-Orleans, Louisiana; and David Cushing and Wm. T. Berry, of Nashville, Tennessee, be appointed a Committee by this Convention, to prepare a report, to be published with the proceedings, upon the subject of the book trade of the South and West, embracing such statistical facts in regard to the publication and manufacture of books, both literary, scientific, and instructive, as are adapted to the school system, and the general wants of the South and West, and report at their earliest convenience to the Secretary of this body.

Resolved, That the President of this Convention appoint a Committee of three gentlemen to prepare and present a memorial on the subject matter of these resolutions, to the consideration of the Legislatures of the Southern and Western States.

ABDUCTION OF SLAVES.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend to each of the Southern States having a sea-port, to adopt the most efficient measures for the protection of the slave property of each State, against abduction by sea, or otherwise.

MAIL SERVICE.

Resolved, That in view of the present deficient and imperfect condition of the mail service in the Southern States, both with regard to their communications with other portions of the Union, and with foreign countries, a Committee of one from each State represented in this Convention be raised to ascertain the extent of the evil, and to suggest the proper remedy.

GEOLOGICAL SURVEYS.

In view of the great commercial as well as scientific importance of a complete knowledge of the geological features of the Southern country, and in consideration of the very imperfect character of the surveys heretofore made, be it

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this Convention, it is proper to urge upon the respective State Legislatures the necessity of their undertaking complete geological surveys of each of the Southern States.

FOR ACTION OF CONGRESS.

Resolved, That the Senators and Representatives in Congress, from the States represented in this Convention, be requested to urge upon Congress the importance of the following measures, viz.:—

1. The reduction of duties on rail-road iron.
2. The passage of an act for the improvement of the merchant service, by encouraging boys to go to sea, and for preventing desertion.
3. To send one or two small steamers up the Amazon for the purpose of exploring the tributaries of that river, which the States owning them have declared to be free to the commerce and navigation of the whole world; and that the government of Brazil be requested to permit these vessels to make explorations and surveys upon the shores of the Amazon, belonging to that nation.
4. To encourage the establishment of a line of mail steamers between some Southern port or ports, and the mouth of the Amazon, or some other port of Brazil.
5. And, also, to encourage the establishment of a direct mail route by steamers between some Southern port or ports and Europe.

CALHOUN MONUMENT.

Resolved, That this Convention, deeply impressed with a sense of the distinguished hospitality of the citizens of Charleston, beg leave to tender to the "Calhoun Monument Fund" a contribution, in aid of its erection, as a token of our appreciation of the politeness and liberality displayed in our entertainment here, and as an evidence of our profound veneration for the memory of South Carolina's favorite son, now numbered among the illustrious dead.

FAIRS.

Resolved, That the Convention recommend to the citizens of the respective States here represented, the importance of holding a fair for the exhibition of their numerous productions of industry, specimens of every description in mechanical skill and art; thereby inviting a cordial and generous spirit of emulation.

The time and place for holding said exhibition to be decided upon by a majority vote of the General Committee of this body.

Resolved, That this Convention cordially recommend to the consideration of the people of the States represented in this Convention, agricultural exhibitions, and institute fairs, as one of the prominent means of developing the industrial resources of those States.

SOUTHERN SEA-PORTS—DIRECT TRADE.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend to each of the Southern States having a sea-port, to encourage the establishment of a direct trade with Europe, either by exempting from taxes, for a limited time, the goods imported, or by allowing the importers an equivalent drawback or bounty, or by such other mode as to the Legislatures of the respective States may seem best.

Resolved, That a Committee, consisting of two members from each seaport represented in this Convention, be appointed for the purpose of inquiring into the expediency of establishing a line of steamships between one or more of said ports and certain port or ports in Europe, with liberty to act during the recess of the Convention, to carry into prompt execution such scheme, having the above object in view, as may be agreed to.

Resolved, That the Southern Delegation in the Congress of the United States be requested to urge the passage of an act authorizing the transportation of the U. S. Mail in said steamships, with such compensation as has heretofore been allowed to other steam lines for similar service.

FREE TRADE.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend to the Government of the United States the formation of treaties with foreign governments for the admission of their respective products at reduced rates of duty.

After passing resolutions complimentary to Southern periodicals, to wit, the "Southern Quarterly," "Southern Literary Messenger," "DE BOW'S REVIEW," "Self-Instructor," "Southern Eclectic," &c., and urging their support upon the South, and resolutions of thanks to the authorities of Charleston, the officers of the Convention, railroad companies, &c., the Convention adjourned, to meet again in New-Orleans, on the second Monday of January, 1855.

Art. I.—THE BATTLE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

THE following are extracts from a journal kept by an officer during this eventful period in Louisiana, between the months of September, 1814, and February, 1815. The journal is embraced within a pocket memorandum book, and was put at our disposition by the present owner:—

Attakapas, 20th September, 1814.—The militia met, and received orders to march to-morrow.

Wednesday, 21st September.—Marched this morning—halted at Sorral's, and took dinner; proceeded to N. Hebert's, where we encamped. Heavy shower in the afternoon.

Thursday, 22d September.—Marched for Portage Baifon; distance 18 miles, through a tremendously bad road; arrived about 11 o'clock. At 4 took boats, and proceeded to the Grand Lake; after sundown encamped on the bank.

Friday, 23d September.—Left encampment at rising sun, proceeded about 30 miles, and landed.

Saturday, 24th September.—Left as usual; got to Plaquemine; remained a few minutes, and walked to the river. Surprised at finding no orders to receive us, or provision for finding us.

Sunday, 25th September, 1814.—Without provisions till 2 o'clock.

Thursday, 29th September, 1814.—Companies mustered at 6 o'clock; reviewed at nine by General ———, who made a patriotic speech. Baton Rouge contains a few good houses, the greater part of the buildings having brothels, grog-shops, and billiard tables. The fort is a pile of ruins. The buildings altogether must have cost 100,000 dollars, at least; are totally neglected; and the barracks, although commodious enough, are nothing but pig-sties.

Tuesday, 4th October.—Drilled the awkward officers as men. No orders, no regulations.

Wednesday, 5th October.—Mustered; number of guards, 36; officers drilled; certainly they are the awkward squad. Men getting sick.

Thursday, 6th October, 1814.—The salt diet, and nothing to cook our provisions, occasions much sickness. This morning another company from Rapides arrived, and about mid-day one from Concordia.

Friday, 7th October, 1814.—Another company of 30 men from Natchitoches. On guard to-day. Muster roll called at 6 o'clock in the morning.

Saturday, 8th October.—Entered on duties of office; made out and posted companies' Roster. Wrote for the Quartermaster. Mustered in the afternoon. Our officers very defective in their duty, particularly the Adjutant, who appears entirely ignorant. On parade, instead of telling us to load cartridge, he gave orders to charge bayonet, and several other gross mistakes of incapacity appeared.

Monday, 10th, and Tuesday, 11th.—Appointed Deputy Quartermaster. Captain Foster brought news of Dr. Moore's death. Ever since we came here weather hot and dry. Wrote home by Captain Penn, who took a detachment to Attakapas to bring delinquents.

Thursday, 13th October.—Great symptoms of discontent among the troops. Orders irregularly issued.

Sunday, 23d October.—Marched this morning, and went 15 miles. Weather fine and pleasant.

Monday, 24th October.—Left encampment this morning, and got about 15 miles.

Tuesday, 25th October.—Left encampment this morning. About one got to General Hampton's, before the boats halted for the night. One man drowned.

Wednesday, 26th October.—Only got about 12 miles; a heavy shower of rain.

Thursday, 27th October.—Fine weather. Got opposite to Red Church, where we encamped. Great complaints about the rations of the troops.

Friday, 28th October, 1814.—Left encampment early in the morning. A very unfortunate circumstance occurred to-day. A man who had enlisted in the 44th Regiment hailed pirogue belonging to the militia, although he was not on guard, and told those in it to land, or he would fire on them; on which one of them, an old friend and acquaintance, told him he would not; on which he, Myers, instantly fired, and shot the man through the heart. He was buried at the Red Church, below which we landed at Datrechan's plantation. Mr. Butler, who lives some distance above, made the militia a present of fresh beef.

Saturday, 29th October, 1814.—Left early this morning; proceeded about 13 miles, and landed at Mr. ———'s plantation, who received us politely, and plentifully supplied us with fresh provisions.

Sunday, October 30, 1814.—Got to the Still-house, adjoining Orleans, where we remained for the night.

Monday, October 31, 1814.—Troops reviewed by Governor Claiborne and staff officers, attended by the volunteer corps of the city. After review, militia marched to a small distance below, to Phillips' Fort. Did not march with them, being obliged to take care of the boat.

Tuesday, 1st November.—Hauled down below the shipping. A violent storm arising obliged (us) to unload, and carry the arms, &c., in the boat by land to the militia.

Wednesday, 2d November.—Militia struck tents, leaving a guard, with which I remained. Excessive rains making the roads dreadfully bad for marching.

Friday, 4th November, 1814.—At English turn our encampment; found there existed difficulties about the appointment of Quartermaster and Adjutant. Weather cold.

Saturday, November 5.—Part of the militia inspected; a few excused, and some refused. Drizzly weather.

Sunday, 6th November.—Inspection continued; in our company two incapable, and two rejected for service. Moist, disagreeable weather.

Monday, 7th November.—Employed in making muster-rolls for Major ———, the Inspector. Guard at camp increased. Very cold—white frost.

Tuesday, 8th November.—Introduced to Mr. Woods, proprietor of Woodville—an agreeable man enough, and much reduced in circumstances. Wrote for Mr. Voorhies to the Governor, resigning his commission as Sheriff and Brigade Inspector.

Thursday, 10th November.—Very strict regulations. Orders to throw up a parapet defence. Great alarm in New-Orleans; British expected. Last Sunday deputation left New-Orleans to General Jackson for assistance.

Friday, 11th November, 1814.—Men much displeased at the idea of being compelled to work on the parapet. Complaints made about pillaging the inhabitants. Woodville is a poor, pitiful, insignificant place, containing, as is usual in such places, a tavern and billiard table. There are barracks here for 1,000 men in tolerable order; but there being no superintendent, (they) are fast going to ruin. Opposite the town is a small fort, from which Lafitte supplied himself with cannon. This evening a strong patrol ordered out, in consequence of desertion apprehended, the militia refusing to work at the parapet directed for their protection. Volunteered my services.

Saturday, 12th November, 1814.—Received letter from home. Rigid rules enforced; rules of war read to the militia.

Sunday, 13th November, 1814.—Rain this morning. In the evening Colonel Ross and Governor Claiborne arrived in camp. Men still dissatisfied with orders to throw up parapet wall. Gunboat with two prizes taken near Barrataria Pass.

Monday, 14th November, 1814.—Made out Knox's account of expenses. Last evening part of the 44th U. S. Regiment arrived. Claiborne and suite left without reviewing. Cloudy.

Tuesday, 15th November, 1814.—As usual, some desertions; guards heavy and useless. In the night about two hours hard rain.

Wednesday, 16th November, 1814.—Drew small rations; detailed a party of carpenters for hospital; sick increasing; rations defective in quantity and quality; resigned as sergeant.

Thursday, 17th November, 1814.—Wrote home. Damp, disagreeable weather.

Friday, 18th November.—Orders to send out scouting parties. Mr. Knox got his commission as second lieutenant. Wrote to Quartermaster General for Voorhies. Cold.

Saturday, 19th Nov.—Fine weather, and very cold.

Sunday, 20th Nov., 1814.—Took place in Voorhies' quarters. Very much engaged. Delivered stationery to the different companies. Wrote provision return for ours, commencing to-morrow and ending 24th. Knox and Taylor went to Orleans.

Monday, 21st Nov.—Heavy rain last night. Wrote home and to Dr. Hennen. Busy in making out returns for ammunition—twelve rounds each man, and three flints. Moderate weather.

Tuesday, 22d Nov.—Made out returns for straw; 18lbs. each man. Col. Declouet and Voorhies went this morning to Orleans. Fatigue party called out for fortifications. Much discontent about it. Engineer arrived. As apprehended, about three o'clock, when the militia were ordered on fatigue, many refused to do duty, and consequently put in confinement.

Wednesday, 23*d Nov.*, 1814.—The cowardly fellows in confinement turned out to work. Men still discontented.

Thursday, 24*th Nov.*—Discontents still continuing. A court-martial. Wet weather.

Friday, 25*th Nov.*—A large Russian ship dropped down the river. Fortification slowly progressing.

Saturday, 26*th Nov.*—Another vessel with passengers. Very bad weather.

Sunday, 27*th Nov.*—Weather somewhat milder. Pretty business in office..

Monday, 28*th Nov.*—Made out Laughlin's provision for two days, beginning to-morrow. Made out fuel accounts.

Tuesday, 29*th Nov.*—Consolidated fuel accounts. Our pitiful Adjutant gave himself some airs about my not doing duty.

Friday, 2*d Dec.*—News of Gen. Jackson's arrival.

Sunday, 4*th Dec.*—Provision return, beginning the 5th, and ending the 8th, inclusive. To the utter mortification, Gen. Jackson passed by water, and did not visit us, as expected. No doubt he thought it most prudent to visit Plaquemine, the post that will first be exposed to danger. Foggy, rainy, disagreeable weather.

Monday, 5*th Dec.*, 1814.—An express arrived, on way to New-Orleans, with information of three or four British vessels having passed the bar. In consequence an immediate inspection of arms took place by Colonel Declouet, a considerable number of which were found deficient, and replaced from the public store. This will always be the case till the militia are made amenable for not taking care.

Tuesday, 6*th Dec.*—No news from Plaquemine. Still remain sick. Fatigue party cleaning ditches. Court-martial.

Wednesday, 7*th Dec.*—Passed a bad night. This morning two boats passed with provisions for Plaquemine. No news. Hazy weather.

Thursday, 8*th Dec.*—Misunderstanding between Col. Declouet and Lieut. Col. Colwell. The latter thinks his command is overlooked altogether by the former. First military punishment took place this afternoon—one was paddled, and, together with two others, sentenced to twelve days hard labor, and confinement in guard-house.

Friday, 9*th Dec.*, 1814.—About 11 o'clock Gen. Jackson arrived from Fort Plaquemine. Visited the fortification, and went on without looking at the militia—indeed, this body of men would disgrace any country.

Tuesday, 13*th Dec.*—John Baker here. He brought no letters, which is surprising. News arrived that a British squadron, with a Vice-Admiral's flag, had arrived, and stationed between Pensacola and the mouth of the Mississippi. The Admiral's, of course a 74, with many vessels with them, and signals of many more off the coast. The place is near the mouth of the Mississippi, and the best place for rendezvous.

Wednesday, 14*th Dec.*—Serious apprehensions of an attack.

Thursday, 15*th December.*—Received news of a battle between our troops and the enemy, in which it is said we lost four gun-boats, and the enemy 24 barges and troops. The action took place yesterday at night. This day Captain Sachat took possession, with his company, of the fort opposite the camp, and a requisition for a reconnoitering party to obstruct the approach of the enemy was ordered. This night a heavy storm of wind and rain.

Friday, 16*th December.*—Made provision return from 17th to 20th, and morning report—53 men and 1 woman; 216 rations. Requisition of negroes a few days ago; near 100 at work on fortification. Scouting party started this forenoon, under command of Lieutenant William Knox, in boats and piroques, and 15 days' provisions. Lieutenant Stokes, on return from command at Orleans, brought intelligence of a battle on Lake Champlain. Four of our gun-boats destroyed, and one blown up by the Cap. Johnson.

Saturday, 17*th December*.—General Morgan and suite arrived. Intelligence of Indians and British near. Twelve rounds to each man delivered about midnight.

Sunday, 18*th December*, 1814.—A boisterous, rainy night. No appearance of the enemy. Voorhies went to town; wrote home by him.

Monday, 19*th December*.—A most tremendous night—black frost, heavy wind, ice on gallery. Troops reviewed by General Morgan, and officers treated by Colonel De Clouet.

Tuesday, 20*th December*.—Last night a severe frost. Made out morning report—a provision return for 54 men and 1 woman, commencing to-morrow and ending the 24th. Troops reviewed. Letters from home by Mr. Voorhies.

Wednesday, 21*st December*.—Cold, severe weather. Strict, unnecessary orders. New alarms, and delivery of 12 rounds of cartridges to each man. Another review. Representations made in Orleans; the militia in a state of insubordination.

Thursday, 22*d December*.—Weather changed from cold to warm and wet. News received of the debarkation of the British at Balize. Some spies of the enemy suspected to have visited the camp. Commands to reconnoitre sent in every direction. It is probable an attack will be made on us this night or to-morrow. The utmost vigilance used. Gun-boat passed this afternoon.

Friday, 23*d December*, 1814.—Cannon and ammunition arrived. Made out forage returns and morning report. Cold, raw, disagreeable weather. Troops ordered under arms this forenoon; an attack expected; remained so some hours; delivered extra arms, cartridges, &c.; marched, about 4 o'clock, every one except the sick and a guard. About 8 heard a terrible discharge of artillery and small arms, which lasted without intermission two hours. Our troops marched about five miles; attacked the picket guard of British. The army under General Jackson is supported by the Louisiana and a gun-boat. No certain news of the result. Lieutenant-Colonel Colewell suspended.

December 24*th*.—Action continued; gun-boat blown up by the British. Marched.

December 25*th*.—Skirmishes—cannon on each side. The Louisiana moved up.

December 26*th*.—British battery silenced.

December 27*th*.—Firing on our side; little on that of the enemy.

December 28*th*.—Same as before.

January 1*st*, 1815.—Year began by a tremendous discharge of artillery, bombs, &c., on both sides. Very severe firing all day. One of the enemy's cannon dislodged. Some wounded on our side, and some killed on that of the foe. Every man employed in hauling guns. Still much misunderstanding among the officers.

January 2*d*.—Firing continued. Lloyd Wilcox and Martin Demaret and company joined us. Nothing particular to-day. Called out almost every hour in the night.

January 3*d*, 1815.—News of arrival of 2,000 troops from above. Little firing this day.

January 4*th*, 1815.—Kentucky and Tennessee troops, to the amount of more than 3,000, landed nearly opposite. British in possession of B. Morgan's plantation. Firing on our side continued with little intermission. British very quiet.

January 5th, 1815.—Cannonading continued. Some houses burnt down by our shot. British erecting strong batteries. A general engagement hourly expected.

January 6th, 1815.—Finished erecting eight guns on the side opposite the enemy. Completed Voorhies' accounts. Fine weather for the last few days.

January 7th, 1815, *Saturday.*—Intelligence of a skirmish between the outposts, and that the enemy has crossed the river. Joined by several companies; our probable number 500. Marched in consequence to the breastwork below the eight-gun battery, without provisions, as has always been the case when we had to march.

January 8th, *Sunday.*—A heavy cannonade began on both sides, succeeded by a most tremendous fire of musketry, which lasted near two hours. The enemy attempted to storm Jackson's Fort, but were, after an obstinate combat, attended with great loss, finally repulsed. On this side, we were also attacked by about 700 or 800. The skirmish lasted but a few minutes. Our right wing shamefully gave way—of course nothing but a retreat saved us. The loss sustained on (our) side was trifling. We left eight pieces of cannon spiked, all our baggage, tents, &c., and retreated about two miles, where we encamped and got provisions after sundown. For the last five nights slept in open air, constantly disturbed by false alarms.

January 9th, 1815, *Monday.*—Wet, drizzly weather. Marched through the swamp to yesterday's battle-ground, from whence the English were found to have previously decamped. Damned strange, contradictory orders from Gen. Morgan, who knows nothing of military affairs, but is entirely governed by an ignorant fop named B., and a self-conceited attorney named T. R.

January 10th, *11th*, *and 12th.*—Remained encamped. Nothing doing on other side. 11th, the British buried their dead.

January 13th, *14th*, *15th*, *16th*, *17th*, *18th*, *19th.*—Continual firing on both sides, particularly on ours; and on the 20th the British left their station, and more than 80 pieces of cannon.

January 21st, *22d*, *and 23d.*—On the 22d, General Jackson, with most of his troops, left camp. Nothing material since has happened.

January 24th and 25th.—Nothing new. Great rejoicing in Orleans, at which our old woman was present.

January 25th to the 31st.—Same, only very cold weather—suffering extremely for want of blankets.

February 1st, 1815.—Very boisterous weather. Much sickness in camp.

February 3d.—Several of sick died last night. The number in the hospital daily augmenting. Tempestuous, wet, disagreeable, unhealthy weather.

February 4th, *5th*, *6th*, *7th*, *and 8th.*—Weather very cold—men without blanketing. Every day three or four dead.

February 9th, *Thursday.*—Pleasant weather. General Jackson and suite arrived in our camp. Reviewed by General Jackson. What a sorry sight!

February 10th, *Friday.*—Lieut. Whittemore died. Deaths from five to eight each day.

February 11th, *12th*, *13th*, *14th*, *and 15th.*—Mortality increasing. Weather cold. On the 15th, received orders to be in readiness to march. Officers impeaching each other.

February 15th to 28th.—Nothing material for these last days. News of peace, and orders for a general muster on the 28th.

Art. XI.—INTERESTING RAILROAD STATISTICS.

We are indebted to the *Railroad Journal*, published in New-York, for the following important table, made up to the 24th of February, 1854:—

NAME OF COMPANY.		Miles open.	Capital paid in.	Funded debt.	Total cost of road and equipm't.	Gross earnings for last official yr.	Dividend.†	Price of shares.
Atlantic and St. Lawrence	Maine.	150	$1,538,100	$2,973,700	$5,150,278	$254,743	none.	83
Androscoggin and Kennebec	"	55	809,878	1,016,500	2,064,458	140.561	none.	30
Kennebec and Portland	"	72	952,621	297,800	2,514,067	168,114	none.	41
Portland, Saco and Portsmouth.	"	51	1,355,500	123,884	1,459,384	208,669	6	96¾
York and Cumberland	"	20	285,747	441,100	713,605	23,940	none.	24
Boston, Concord and Montreal	N. H.	93	1,649,278	622,200	2,540,217	150,538	none.	33
Concord	"	35	1,485,000	none.	1,485,000	305.805	8	111
Cheshire	"	54	2,078,625	720,900	3,002,094	287,768	5	38
Northern	"	82	3,016,634	—	—	328,782	5	59
Manchester and Lawrence	"	24	717,543	—	—	—	6	90
Nashua and Lowell	"	15	600,000	none.	651,214	132,545	8	106
Portsmouth and Concord	"	47	—	—	1,400,000	—	none.	—
Sullivan	"	26	—	—	673,500	—	none.	21
Connecticut and Passumpsic	Vt..	61	1,097,600	550,000	1,745,516	—	none.	29
Rutland	"	120	2,486,000	2,429,100	5,577,467	495,397	none.	11
Vermont Central	"	117	8,500,000	3,500,000	12,000,000	—	—	13
Vermont and Canada	"	47	1,500,000	—	1,500,000	—	—	97
Western Vermont	"	51	392,000	700,000	—	—	none.	—
Vermont Valley	"	24	—	—	—	—	none.	—
Boston and Lowell	Mass.	28	1,830,000	—	1,995,249	388,108	7	91
Boston and Maine	"	83	4,076,974	150,000	4,092,927	659,001	7	103
Boston and Providence	"	53	3,160,390	390,000	3,546,214	469,656	6	84
Boston and Worcester	"	69	4,500,000	425,000	4,845,967	758,819	7	100¼
Cape Cod Branch	"	28	421,295	171,800	633,906	60,743	2	40
Connecticut River	"	52	1,591,100	193,500	1,801,946	229,004	5	55
Eastern	"	75	2,850,000	500,000	3,120.391	488,793	7	89⅛
Fall River	"	42	1,050,000	none.	1,050,000	229,445	8	99
Fitchburg	"	66	3,540,000	112,305	3,623,073	574,574	6	91¾
New-Bedford and Taunton	"	20	500,000	none.	520,475	164,230	7	117
Norfolk County	"	26	547,015	819,743	1,245,927	67,251	none.	68
Old Colony	"	45	1,964,070	282,300	2,293,534	374,897	none.	87
Taunton Branch	"	12	250,000	none.	307,136	137,406	8	—
Vermont and Massachusetts	"	77	2,140,536	1,001,500	3,203,333	218,679	none.	23⅛
Worcester and Nashua	"	45	1,134,000	171,210	1,321,945	162.109	4	59
Western	"	155	5,150,000	5,319,520	9,953,759	1,525,224	7	97
Stonington	R. I..	50	—	467,700	—	240,572	—	65¾
Providence and Worcester	"	40	1,457,500	300,000	1,791,999	291,417	6	95
Canal	Conn.	45	922,500	500,000	1,400,000	—	4	65
Hartford and New-Haven	"	72	2,350,000	800,000	3,150,000	639,529	10	128
Housatonic	"	110	—	—	2,500,000	329,041	none.	—
Hartford, Prov. and Fishkill	"	50	—	—	In prog.	69,629	none.	—
New-London, Wil. & Palmer.	"	66	558,861	800,000	1,511,111	114,410	—	39
New-York and New-Haven	"	61	3,000,000	1,641,000	4,978,467	806,713	7	101⅛
Naugatuck	"	62	926,000	440,000	—	—	8	—
New-London and New-Haven.	"	55	750,500	650,000	1,360,610	—	none.	40
Norwich and Worcester	"	54	2,121,110	701,600	2,596,488	267,561	4	57⅛
Buffalo and New-York City	N. Y.	91	900,000	1,550,000	2,550,500	—	none.	—
Buffalo, Corning and N. York.	"	132	—	—	In prog.	—	none.	65
Buffalo and State Line	"	69	879,636	872,000	1,921,270	—	—	130
Canandaigua and Niagara F.	"	50	—	—	In prog.	—	—	—
Canandaigua and Elmira	"	47	425,509	582,400	987,627	76,760	none.	68
Cayuga and Susquehanna	"	35	687,000	400,000	1,070,786	74,241	none.	—
Erie, (New-York and Erie)	"	464	10,000,000	24,003,865	33,070,863	4,318,962	7	78⅛
Hudson River	"	144	3,740,515	7,046,395	10,527,654	1,063,659	none.	70¼
Harlem	"	130	4,725,250	977,463	6,102,935	681,445	4	56
Long Island	"	95	1,875,148	516,246	2,446,391	205,068	none.	34
New-York Central	"	504	23,085,600	10.773,823	33,859,423	—	—	112
Ogdensburgh (Northern)	"	118	1,579,969	2,969,760	5,133,834	480,137	—	29¾
Oswego and Syracuse	"	35	350,000	201.500	607,803	90,616	—	70
Plattsburg and Montreal	"	23	174,042	131,000	249,775	—	none.	—
Rensselaer and Saratoga	"	25	610,000	25,000	774,495	213,078	—	—
Rutland and Washington	"	60	850.000	400,000	1,250,000	—	—	—
Saratoga and Washington	"	41	899,800	940,000	1,832,945	173,545	none.	30
Troy and Rutland	"	32	237,690	100,000	329,577	—	—	33

TABLE—(*Continued.*)

NAME OF COMPANY.		Miles open.	Capital paid in.	Funded debt.	Total cost of road and equipm't.	Gross earnings for last official yr.	Dividend.	Price of shares.
Troy and Boston	N. Y.	39	$430,936	$700,000	$1,043,357	—	none.	—
Watertown and Rome	"	96	1,011,940	650,000	1,693,711	$225,152	8	96
Camden and Amboy	N. J.	65	1,500,000	—	4,327,498	1,388,385	10	148
Morris and Essex	"	45	1,022,420	128,000	1,220,325	149.941	7	—
New-Jersey	"	31	2,197,840	476,000	3,245,720	603,942	10	131
New-Jersey Central	"	63	966,106	1,500,000	2,379,880	260,899	3	—
Cumberland Valley	Penn.	56	1,184,500	13,000	1,265,143	118,617	5	—
Erie and North East	"	20	600,000	—	750,000	—	—	125
Harrisburgh and Lancaster	"	36	830,100	713,227	1,702,523	265,327	8	—
Philadelphia and Reading	"	95	6,656,332	10,427,800	17,141,987	2,480,626	7	80
Philad., Wilmington and Balt.	"	98	5,000,000	2,399,166	8,067,285	868,038	5	80
Pennsylvania Central	"	250	9,768,155	5,900,000	13,600,000	1,943,827	—	97½
Philadelphia and Trenton	"	30	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pennsylvania Coal Co.	"	47	—	—	—	—	—	108½
Baltimore and Ohio	Md.	381	13,118,902	5,677,103	22.254,338	2,083,420	7	58
Washington Branch	"	38	1,650,000	—	1,650,000	348,022	8	—
Baltimore and Susquehanna	"	57	—	—	—	413,672	—	—
Alexandria and Orange	Va.	65	—	—	In prog.	—	—	—
Manassas Gap	"	27	—	—	In prog.	—	—	—
Petersburgh	"	64	769,000	173,867	1,162,928	227,593	7	77
Richmond and Danville	"	73	1,372,324	200,000	In prog.	—	—	70
Richmond and Petersburgh	"	22	685,000	—	1,100,000	122,861	none.	40
Rich., Fred. and Potomac	"	76	1,000,000	503,006	1,531,238	254,376	7	100
South Side	"	62	1,357,778	640,000	2,106,467	62,762	—	—
Virginia Central	"	107	1,673,684	469,150	2,392,215	210,052	10	50
Virginia and Tennessee	"	73	2,650,091	707,958	3,545,256	109,268	none.	98
Winchester and Potomac	"	32	180,000	120,000	416,532	89,776	12	—
Wilmington and Raleigh	N. C.	161	1,338,878	1,134,698	2,965,574	510,038	6	—
Charlotte and South Carolina	S. C.	110	—	—	—	—	—	—
Greenville and Columbia	"	140	1,004,231	300,000	In prog.	—	—	—
South Carolina	"	242	3,858,840	3,000,000	7,002,396	1,000,717	7	125
Wilmington and Manchester	"	—	—	—	In prog.	—	—	—
Georgia Central	Ga.	191	3,500,000	418,187	3,465,879	986,074	8	115
Georgia	"	211	4,000,000	1,214	—	934,424	7½	—
Macon and Western	"	101	1,013,088	163,000	1,277,334	278,739	9	101
Muscogee	"	71	—	—	In prog.	59,590	—	—
South Western	"	50	586,887	150,000	743,525	129,395	6	—
Alabama & Tennessee River	Ala.	55	—	—	In prog.	—	—	—
Memphis and Charleston	"	93	776,259	400,000	In prog.	—	—	—
Mobile and Ohio	"	33	879,866	—	In prog.	—	—	—
Montgomery and West Point	"	88	688,611	—	1,330,960	173,542	8	—
Southern	Miss.	60	—	—	—	—	—	—
East Tennessee and Georgia	Tenn.	80	835,600	541,000	In prog.	—	—	—
Nashville and Chattanooga	"	125	2,093,814	850,000	In prog.	—	—	—
Covington and Lexington	Ky.	38	1,430,150	900,000	In prog.	—	—	63
Frankfort and Lexington	"	29	357,218	—	584,902	87,421	—	80
Louisville and Frankfort	"	65	—	—	—	—	—	—
Maysville and Lexington	"	—	—	—	In prog.	—	—	45
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	Ohio.	100	1,979,100	1,142,200	3,279,906	432,682	10	91
Cleveland and Toledo	"	147	2,000,000	1,600,000	—	—	—	100
Cleveland and Erie	"	95	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cleveland and Columbus	"	135	3,027,000	408,200	3,655,000	777,793	12	121
Columbus, Piqua and Indiana	"	46	—	—	2,000,000	—	—	65
Columbus and Lake Erie	"	61	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cincinnati, Ham. and Dayton	"	60	2,100,000	500,000	2,659,653	321,793	—	—
Cincinnati and Marietta	"	—	—	—	In prog.	—	—	104½
Dayton and Western	"	40	310,000	550,000	925,000	—	—	62
Dayton and Michigan	"	20	—	—	In prog.	—	—	75
Eaton and Hamilton	"	36	—	—	—	—	—	—
Greenville and Miami	"	31	—	—	—	—	—	56
Hillsboro'	"	37	—	—	In prog.	—	—	—
Little Miami	"	84	2,668,402	482,000	3,169,733	667,559	10	109½
Mansfield and Sandusky	"	—	900,000	1,000,000	1,855,000	—	—	—
Mad River and Lake Erie	"	167	2,387,200	1,767,000	4.110,148	540,518	—	77½
Ohio Central	"	57	—	—	In prog.	—	—	79
Ohio and Mississippi	"	—	—	—	"	—	—	87
Ohio and Pennsylvania	"	187	1,750,700	2,450,000	—	—	—	—
Ohio and Indiana	"	—	—	—	In prog.	—	—	—
Scioto and Hocking Valley	"	44	750,000	300,000	"	—	—	—
Xenia and Columbus	"	54	1,291,000	300,000	1,257,714	317,000	10	107

Art. XII.—RAILROADS.

The people of New-Orleans have, by a large vote, determined to substitute a direct subscription to their great railroad works in the place of the real estate tax previously voted. This measure will facilitate their construction, and is hailed by the citizens with gratification. From the last Annual Report of James Robb, Esq., President of the New-Orleans and Great Northern Railroad, we extract the following:—

"New-Orleans, with railroad communications extending to the Tennessee River, can defy all competition of rivalry for the trade which naturally and legitimately belongs to her. Every road constructed, and to be constructed, east of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, will become the tributaries of such an improvement, and no contrivance can divert or prevent this result. The Illinois Central, Mobile and Ohio, Memphis and Charleston, Mississippi Central, Tennessee and Alabama, Nashville and Louisville, and the Alabama and Southern, will all lend immensely to its traffic and importance, making it, as I have stated in my first annual report, to other railroads what the Mississippi River is to its tributaries. The travel between the North and the South will seek the South through Virginia by way of the Tennessee valley. It is shorter than any other route proposed or likely to be adopted, and combines attractions in scenery and beauty of country unsurpassed, and it is absurd to suppose that any more southern route can be a competitor for the through travel from the Gulf of Mexico to the North Atlantic cities. The productions of South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama, with the exception of the northern part of the latter, contiguous to the Tennessee River, will find their markets at their own seaboard, and it is not expected that artificial highways will divert them hither; the mission of our improvements is to cultivate and extend what belongs to us, and this will be completely achieved when your road and its magnificent connections are established and perfected.

"In my last annual report, the subject of the importance of bringing to New-Orleans the traffic of the Pacific, by way of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, was treated of. The voyage between New-York and San Francisco has not been made, up to this time, in less than twenty-one days, by either of the routes employed. The adoption of the route from San Francisco of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, of your road to the intersection with the Memphis and Charleston, the Memphis and Charleston to Chattanooga, ,and the roads from thence, via Knoxville and Virginia, to Washington City would reduce the time to thirteen or fourteen days, equal to a gain of a week, and the saving of more than eighteen hundred miles of ocean navigation; and as railroads are being built from New-Brunswick to East Canada, which will lessen the time of travel between New-York and London to eight days, the voyage from San Francisco to London, which now employs thirty-two days, may be reduced to twenty-two days. It is idle to speculate on the revolutions in trade and commerce, so important to New-Orleans, that must ensue on the completion of this great thoroughfare of nations. It will bring us enterprise to improve the liberal bounties of our natural position; vigorous energy will spring into life, that will successfully vindicate our title to that rank and equality which will be derived from our unrivalled resources.

"Various schemes have been projected to build railroads to the Pacific, but their being carried on to a point of practical success, for a long period of time to come, may justly be regarded with doubt and uncertainty. The progress of building railroads in the Northern States, shows that the extension of fifty or sixty miles of any one continuous line, annually, is a fair average of progress, even through populous and settled States. The distance from the nearest point on the Mississippi to the Pacific is about 1,600 miles; and, taking past experience of progress as a criterion of the future, the present generation could scarcely witness the completion of such a work. Entertaining these views, the advantages of an early completion of your road and of the transit of the Tehuantepec, possess not only great present and local, but immense national importance, and is a glowing exhibition of the necessity of hastening our public works by uncommon energy, and particularly your road, now so fairly commenced, and which is to bind us more closely with more than four-fifths of the States of the confederacy, and some six or seven millions of people, whose productions almost exclusively seek a market at our wharves, and an outlet from the mouth of the Mississippi.

"While making reference to the general importance of the scheme of your road, it is proper to bring to your notice some of its local advantages. Its traffic, when opened to the State line, will comprise the transportation of lumber, building materials, and some cotton. The present consumption of lumber in New-Orleans reaches near 50,000,000 feet per annum, and is chiefly derived from the Red River, and the various tributaries emptying into the surrounding lakes. The cost of transportation ranges from $2 50 to $4 per 1,000 feet. Supplies of sawed timber can be brought on your road for a distance of 120 miles, for $3 per 1,000 feet; and within this extent of its line there is penetrated 70 miles of pine forests, yielding lumber of the finest quality, and in quantity sufficient to supply the present demand of the city for twenty years; besides lumber, firewood and brick will be largely transported, and, with this new and important traffic, there will spring up incidental and extensive employments, that will greatly promote the increase of an active and industrious population, who will require constant and large supplies of produce and merchandise from the city, constituting a traffic of very considerable importance.

"The number of passengers to be transported on excursion trains to the Lake Shore and the Pine Woods will be very large, and cannot fail to add greatly to the productiveness of the road from the city to the State line."

Probable Expenditures of the New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Railroad Company to January 31, 1854.

Engineering Department and Contractors for October, November, December and Janaury	$120,000 00
Iron Rails	310,000 00
Cars	10,000 00
Contingencies	20,000 00
Reduction of Stock	5,000 00
Bills payable	750 00
	$465,750 00

RESOURCES.		
Cash on hand	$82,600 00	
Collection on account of capital stock	45,000 00	
Collection on account of arrear taxes	50,000 00	
State Bonds	165,000 00	
		342,600 00
		$123,150 00

NEW-ORLEANS, *November* 1, 1853.

(Signed) J. CALHOUN, *Secretary*.

(B.)

Statement of the Receipts and Expenditures of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad Company, to April 10, 1854.

RECEIPTS.		
Capital Stock—On account of—		
Subscription in New-Orleans	$450,934 06	
Subscription in Mississippi	87,889 75	
Subscription railroad tax for 1852	233,592 62	
From the State of Louisiana, in bonds at 40 years	186,000 00	
		$958,416 43
Real Estate Tax B'ds due in 1856, issued for construction	30,000 00	
Real Estate Tax B'ds due in 1857, issued for loan	300,000 00	

Real Estate Tax B'ds due in 1858, issued for loan	$150,000 00	
		480,000 00
Bills Payable :—		
Issued for Real Estate	22,123 30	
Issued for Loans	268,333 32	
" for Construction, etc.	$54,303 52	
		344,760 14
Interest :—		
Received on account of Madison County Bonds		11,760 00
		$1,794,936 57

EXPENDITURES.

Graduation, Masonry and Bridges		$812,406 76
Iron Rails		416,726 27
Chairs, Spikes and Turn-out Irons		16,860 82
Cross Ties		97,436 19
Laying Track		18,118 69
Locomotives		35,755 38
Cars		16,958 10
Way Station Buildings		5,500 00
Wood Shed and Water Stations		814 84
Division Houses		1,325 00
Machine Shops		3,066 12
Tools and Machinery		236 47
Engineering:—		
Survey s under direction of Col. W. S. Campbell		14,669 20
Surveys under direction of A. P. Winchester		7,845 30
Surveys and location under direction of Ch. Eng. 1st Div		43,120 89
Surveys and location under direction of Chief Engineer, 2d and 3d Divisions		31,402 33
On account of superintending construction		27,569 38
Advertising and printing		8,682 59
Commission		1,389 41
Right of Way		11,797 67
Real Estate for Depots in Louisiana and Mississippi		75,306 80
Interest		$11,699 97
Fencing		1,520 54
Expense		34,151 46
Reduction of Stock		21,857 55
Taxes		549 45
Coupons No 1 on bonds due in 1856	1,200 00	
Coupons No. 1 on bonds due in 1857	12,000 00	
Coupons No. 1 on bonds due in 1858	6,000 00	
		19,200 00
Contingencies		265 75
Total Expenditures		$1,736,254 93
Cash in New-Orleans	49,903 82	
" in hands Assistant Treasurer, Aberdeen, Miss	3,261 57	
" in hands of Agent, Canton, Miss	5,170 00	
" in hands of Agent, Gallatin, Miss	346 25	
		$58,681 64
		$1,794,936 57

JOHN CALHOUN, *Treasurer.*

(C.)

Statement of Subscription to the Capital Stock of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad Company.

By whom payable.	Amount.
Louisiana—State of Louisiana	$1,600,000 00
" City of N. Orleans	2,000,000 00
" Tax Payers of New-Orleans	333,333 33
" Voluntary Subscription in N. Orleans	617,750 00
" Contractors	186,720 00
Mississippi—State of Mississippi (estimated)	600,000 00
" Monroe County	460,000 00
" Madison	100,000 00
Mississippi—Attala	$72,075 00
" Oktibbeha	50,000 00
" Hinds	39,600 00
" Copiah	6,925 00
" Pike	9,500 00
" Canton and Jackson Railroad	44,170 00
Total	$6,120,073 33

NEW-ORLEANS, *April* 10, 1854.

Resources of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad Company.

Subscription due in 1854	$2,801,150 65
" 1855	1,396,592 50
" 1856	374,930 00
Subscription due after 1856	$577,223 75
	$5,149,896 90

Art. XIII.—COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Commerce and Navigation Report for 1853 has left the printer's hands, and will in a few days be laid upon the desks of members of Congress. This may justly be regarded as the most important official publication that emanates from any one of the government departments. It is a record of the progress of our commerce, and the most unmistakable and tangible exponent of the permanency and solidity of our maritime welfare. Congress does not seem to attach a value to it commensurate with what it should properly claim. A very few thousand copies only are ordered to be printed. These, or a great portion of them, are never dispatched from the capital. They pass from the folding-room to the document-room; are cast aside ultimately as waste paper, and are finally disposed of to the grocer. The fault lies with the merchant more than with the member; for if commercial men would really appreciate the document as it deserves to be regarded, representatives would take pride in responding to their calls upon them for copies. As it is, it is a book oftener heard of than examined—oftener mutilated for its worthlessness than cherished for its value.

It is not our purpose to digest wholly the tables furnished in the present volume, as the reader will find in previous numbers the aggregate footings of our exports and imports for the last fiscal year. We desire, however, to invite attention to the unprecedented augmentation which has taken place in our shipping, which now fairly eclipses in magnitude that of the mother country.

In 1815, the total registered and enrolled tonnage employed in the foreign trade of the United States amounted to 1,368,127 tons; and the entire tonnage engaged in the coasting trade amounted to but 435,066 tons. In 1853, our registered and enrolled tonnage amounted to 4,407,010 tons, and the entire coasting trade employed 2,134,256 tons! Such has been the increase of our local and foreign shipping! The following is a statement on this score in detail:—

		Tons.
Registered vessels employed in foreign trade		2,103,675
Enrolled, employed in coasting—over 20 tons	2,082,782	
Enrolled, employed in coasting—under 20 tons	51,476	
		2,134,258
		4,237,933
Enrolled cod fishery—over 20 tons	99,989	
Enrolled mackerel	59,850	
" cod—under 20 tons.	9,238	
		169,077
Grand total, as above		4,407,010

	Tons.		
Permanent registered	1,639,988		
Temporary "	463,686		
Total registered		2,228,214	
Permanent enrolled	2,228,214		
Temporary "	14,408	2,242,622	
Total enrolled		60,713	
Licensed, under 20 tons		4,407,010	
Of enrolled and licensed, there were employed in the—			
Coasting trade	2,982,782		tons.
Cod fishery	99,989		"
Mackerel	59,850		"
	2,242,622		"
Registered, in steam navigation	90,519		"
Enrolled, in " "	514,098		"

It cannot but be highly gratifying to the South to find that it has displayed a more than ordinary spirit in meriting a share in the dock-enterprise of the country the past year. In effect, the New-England States build more vessels than all the other States combined; but two facts must be borne in mind while admitting the force of the figures—first, Maine and Massachusetts build great numbers of small craft for their fisheries; and secondly, Massachusetts supplies nearly all the vessels that are annually sold from the United States for the Brazilian market. The craft, credited below to the Southern States, are owned in the South, and are employed in the coasting and foreign trade of the States respectively.

VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES, 1853.

	Ships and Barges.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Sloops, &c.	Steamers.	Total Vessels.	Total Tons.
Maine	132	70	133	10	7	351	118,916
New-Hampshire	9	—	1	—	—	10	8,666
Vermont	—	—	2	—	—	2	218
Massachusetts	73	1	126	3	2	205	83,015
Rhode Island	6	—	5	—	—	11	3,170
Connecticut	4	—	37	21	5	67	9,028
New-York	21	6	85	103	74	289	83,224
New-Jersey	—	—	30	22	6	58	7,107
Pennsylvania	1	4	28	102	56	191	31,539
Delaware	—	1	11	19	2	33	4,435
Maryland	15	9	97	—	1	122	16,901
District of Columbia	—	—	—	42	—	42	2,743
Virginia	3	1	11	14	11	40	6,599
North Carolina	—	1	16	3	2	22	1,746
South Carolina	—	—	24	13	1	38	1,993
Georgia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Florida	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Alabama	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mississippi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Louisiana	—	—	9	4	4	17	1,346
Tennessee	—	—	—	—	1	1	45
Missouri	—	—	1	10	11	22	3,583
Kentucky	—	—	—	1	29	30	8,592
Illinois	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wisconsin	1	1	10	2	—	14	2,422
Ohio	4	—	28	23	35	90	21,213
Michigan	—	1	20	—	14	35	4,304
Texas	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
California	—	—	—	—	2	2	150
Oregon Ter	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Indian Ter	—	—	—	—	9	9	3,455

Vessels designed for Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and South Carolina are built usually in North Carolina, owing to the convenience of timber in that State, and the facilities it possesses for launching them in the hull cheaper than they can be sent from the stocks in the States mentioned. On the whole, the South should be grateful to the enterprising spirits that have come forward the past year, to vindicate it from the reproach that it "neither possessed enterprise to accomplish a measure, nor capital to consummate it"*—alluding to this very subject, ship-building and the coasting trade.

Art. XIV.—EDITORIAL, BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

The friends of the late John S. Skinner proposed to raise a monument to his memory and a fund for the benefit of his destitute widow. The fund is to be raised among the agriculturists of the Union, in whose service Mr. Skinner's whole life was spent. He established the first agricultural journal in America, and was engaged in editing similar journals almost up to the period of his death. The amount desired is $6,000, of which $5,000 will go to the widow and the remainder be expended upon the monument. Six thousand subscribers at $2 each are asked for, and each subscriber will be entitled to a yearly copy of the Plough, Loom, and Anvil, (the work which Mr. Skinner last edited), containing a portrait, biography, etc., of the deceased. We recommend the plan to public favor. Subscriptions will be directed to Myron Finch, Esq., office of the Plough, Loom, and Anvil, 9 Spruce Street, New-York.

The Legislature of Virginia, at its last session, chartered the White Sulphur Springs Company, with a capital not exceeding $1,500,000. It is proposed to improve these springs, and make them in every respect the most inviting and the best in America. In the hands of a proper company this can easily be effected. We trust that the people of the South will move in the matter, and thus do much for the retention of travel within their own limits. No more favorable opportunity could present itself than the present.

---

* Hunt, August, 1853.

We continue to receive the volumes of the British Poets in course of publication by Little, Brown, & Co., of Boston.

The enterprise of Messrs. Little, Brown, & Co. is about to give to the American public the best edition of the British poets, from Spenser to Moore, that has been issued in this country. It is reprinted from, and is in fact a fac-simile, of the celebrated Aldine edition, equal to it in the beauty of its typography, and in the whiteness and finish of the paper.

They are issued in a style every way equal, and at a much less price than the English editions.

The following are now in course of publication :—

Akenside	1 vol.	Milton	3 vols.
Beattie	1 "	Parnell	1 "
Burns	3 "	Pope	3 "
Butler	2 "	Prior	2 "
Churchill	3 "	Shakspeare	1 "
Collins	1 "	Surrey and Wyatt	2 "
Cowper	3 "	Swift	3 "
Dryden	5 "	Thomson	2 "
Falconer	1 "	White, H. K.	1 "
Goldsmith	1 "	Young	2 "
Gray	1 "		

An Art Student in Munich, by Anna Mary Howitt. Boston: Ticknor, Reed, & Fields. 1854. The work consists of gleanings from letters written home during a sojourn in Munich, for the purpose of artistic study. They record the beautiful and happy experiences belonging to a peculiarly poetical chapter in the life of a woman studying art.

"*Russia as It Is*," by Count A. de Gurowski. New-York: D. Appleton & Co. 1854. Washington: Taylor & Maury. This is an able and valuable work, and comes at the present juncture most opportunely. The author discusses Czarism—Nicholas, Government of Russia, the Army and Navy, Nobility, Clergy, Cossacks, the People, Manifest Destiny, etc.

Types of Mankind; or, Ethnological Researches. Based upon the Ancient Monuments, Paintings, Sculptures, and Crania of Races, and upon their Natura Geographical, Philological, and Biblical History; illustrated by selections from the inedited papers of S. and Geo. Morton, M.D., and by additional contributions from Agassiz, Usher, and others. By J. C. Nott, M.D., and Geo. R. Gliddon. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo, & Co. Washington: Taylor & Maury. 1854.

We can only give the title of this erudite volume just issued from the press, but intend a full analysis of it in an early number of the Review. The plates and other illustrations and typography of the volume are admirable.

TO SUBSCRIBERS.

We have sent a special circular by mail to every person indebted to the Review, and entreat the earliest remittances. Our friends will certainly think us entitled to this. We have also written letters to those whose accounts have been standing. If any errors exist in our accounts, a mere note to the office will have them corrected. Errors are unavoidable sometimes. Remittances will be made to the Review Office, Washington, D. C., or New-Orleans, and will be acknowledged on the cover.

RETURN TO → **CIRCULATION DEPARTMENT**
202 Main Library 642-3403

LOAN PERIOD 1 **HOME USE**	2	3
4	5	6

ALL BOOKS MAY BE RECALLED AFTER 7 DAYS
1-month loans may be renewed by calling 642-3405
6-month loans may be recharged by bringing books to Circulation De
Renewals and recharges may be made 4 days prior to due date

DUE AS STAMPED BELOW

REC. CIR. FEB 10 77		
REC. CIR. AUG 14 1973		
APR 11 1985		
RETD APR 18 1984		
AN 05 19		
OCT 03 1997		

FORM NO. DD 6, 40m, 6'76

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY
BERKELEY, CA 94720

LIBRARY USE
RETURN TO DESK FROM WHICH
LOAN DEP

U. C. BERKELEY LIBRARIES

C041807083